THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

OCTOBER 15, 1926

How to Keep the Men Alive
By Haven Emerson

Gangs in the Cracks of Society
By Frederic M. Thrasher

Schools and Cotton Mills
Working Girls Talk It Out
Community Mental Hygiene
A Living Map of a City
Fourteen Million Philanthropists
How to Buy in Social Work

25 Cents a Copy

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October 15, 1926

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Book Harvest

THIS is harvest time for the last big crop of the season—the crop of fall books. Survey Graphic for November, the next issue, will set up an ample thresher, not so much to separate chaff as to select out of the bins a full measure of the grains which may nourish the life and labor of our times.

Leon Whipple, who is in charge, has worked out for this Fall Book Section a practical example of the subject which he discusses in the introduction: that is, What may we expect of the reviewers of serious books? and What are the relative values of reviewers who are skilled writers with a background of general intelligence, as against reviewers who are experts in their subject but—shall we say?—not experienced writers?

The Book of the Month Club has had enough experience to be able to draw some conclusions about its plan of getting good books on to the reading tables of people who want to read books but just don't get round to it.

The editor of The Modern Quarterly reviews the Fall fiction, particularly the books by and about Negroes and Mr. H. G. Wells' big new two-volume eight-cylinder autobiographical novel. It is a shock to think of Wells as old enough to reminisce.

Democracy, some view-with-alarmists believe, has disappeared from American politics and government. But up bobs her familiar face—in the factories and work-shops of industry, of all places. The writers of books seem to have beaten the newspapers in covering this news. Our reviews of them are by experts whom Mr. Whipple must approve for he chose them himself.

A large part of the issue will be bookish in a lively and interesting way, including the advertisements in which book publishers set forth the best of the Fall and Winter lists.

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112 East 19 Street, New York

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PUBLISHERS

THE SURVEY—Twice-a-month—$5.00 a year
SURVEY GRAPHIC—Monthly—$3.00 a year

PAUL U. KELLOGG, *Editor*
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THE SURVEY, published semi-monthly and copyright 1926 by SURVEY ASSOCIATES, Inc., 112 East 19th Street, New York. Price: this copy (October 15, 1926; Vol. LVII, No. 2) 30 cts.; $5 a year; foreign postage, $1 extra; Canadian 60 cts. Changes of address should be mailed to us two weeks in advance. When payment is by check a receipt will be sent only upon request. Entered as second-class matter, March 25, 1909, at the post office, New York, N. Y., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at a special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized June 26, 1918. President, Robert W. de Forest. Secretary, Ann Reed Brenner Langstroth. Treasurer, Arthur Kellogg.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

Vol. LVII, No. 2 October 15, 1926

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The Gist of It

LONG live the Danes. They have been sober enough long enough to be able to show a direct relation between the per capita consumption of alcohol and the average length of male lives. Their statistics interpreted from a sanitarian's point of view by Dr. Emerson. Page 69.

THE studies in rural sociology made by Prof. Robert E. Park and his associates of the University of Chicago, will begin to reach the public ten days hence with the publication of The Gang, by Frederic M. Thrasher. The Survey is fortunate in having advance pulication of an article based on his book. He is professor of sociology at Illinois Wesleyan University, following similar faculty positions at Ohio State, Indiana, and Chicago Universities and the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. Page 71.

JUST how the schools of Greensboro, N. C., lie in the uneasy balance between the school men and the cotton mill men is disclosed by the Rev. H. Parsons Marley, the energetic minister of the Elm Street Christian Church of Greensboro. Page 77.

PAUL BLANSHARD, the field secretary of the League for Industrial Democracy, has spoken before audiences of 51,000 students in 97 American colleges during the past year. Page 79.

LUCY P. CARNER was one of the leaders of the group of summer conferences for working girls of which she writes. She is executive secretary of the National Industrial Department of the Y.W.C.A. Page 81.

ANNA L. CURTIS made a study of workers' education while serving as a relief worker with the Friends' Committee in Germany. She describes the Leipsic Labor College from personal observation and from reports and letters sent her by German friends during the past year. Page 83.

A NEIGHBORHOOD mother said to a settlement worker: "It's pretty soft for the kids. We used to give 'em a bat over the head. Now we send them to the psychiatrist." Settlements and health centers are strategic points for getting close to the beginning of those maladies of the spirit which a stitch of mental hygiene in time can do so much to prevent. Grace Allen, R.N., is supervisor of mental hygiene at the East Harlem Nursing and Health Center, of which she writes. Page 85. Marion E. Palmer is head of social service at the Hudson Guild Advisory Bureau. Page 87. Mary K. Simkhovitch is head resident and founder of Greenwich House. Page 89. She is today, or at any rate she ought to be, the proudest of settlement workers. For among her boys some years back was a quiet, studious lad named Gene Tunney who is now the world's heavyweight champion. That was before the day of neighborhood psychiatry, even before there was a gymnasium at Greenwich House. But the settlement influence may be traced in this champion's odd love of books and the way he quoted Shakespeare to the reporters who interviewed him on prize-fighting.

BLANCHE RENARD, who writes of the living map of St. Louis, is associate director of the Community Council of St. Louis. Page 90.

AS head of the Department of Group Movements of the Child Welfare League of America, C. W. Areson gathered the very interesting material on the welfare work done by fraternal orders, the American Legion, service clubs and women's clubs. The article was written after trips to various parts of the country ending last spring and was up to date at that time. Unfortunate but unavoidable delay in publication must be held accountable for the omission of activities which may have been started during the summer. Page 95.

THE relief and rehabilitation work of the American Red Cross has grown in experience and effectiveness since its organized beginning after the San Francisco earthquake until today the public promptly accepts the Red Cross estimate of what is needed over that of the governor of Florida. Royal Clyde Agne, who describes the system business rehabilitation, was associated with the A. R. C. for six years, two of these in disaster relief. He is now director of religious education at the Old Stone Church, Cleveland. Page 98.

DR. MIRIAM VAN WATERS' series of articles on Parents and the Changing World begins in the next issue of The Survey.

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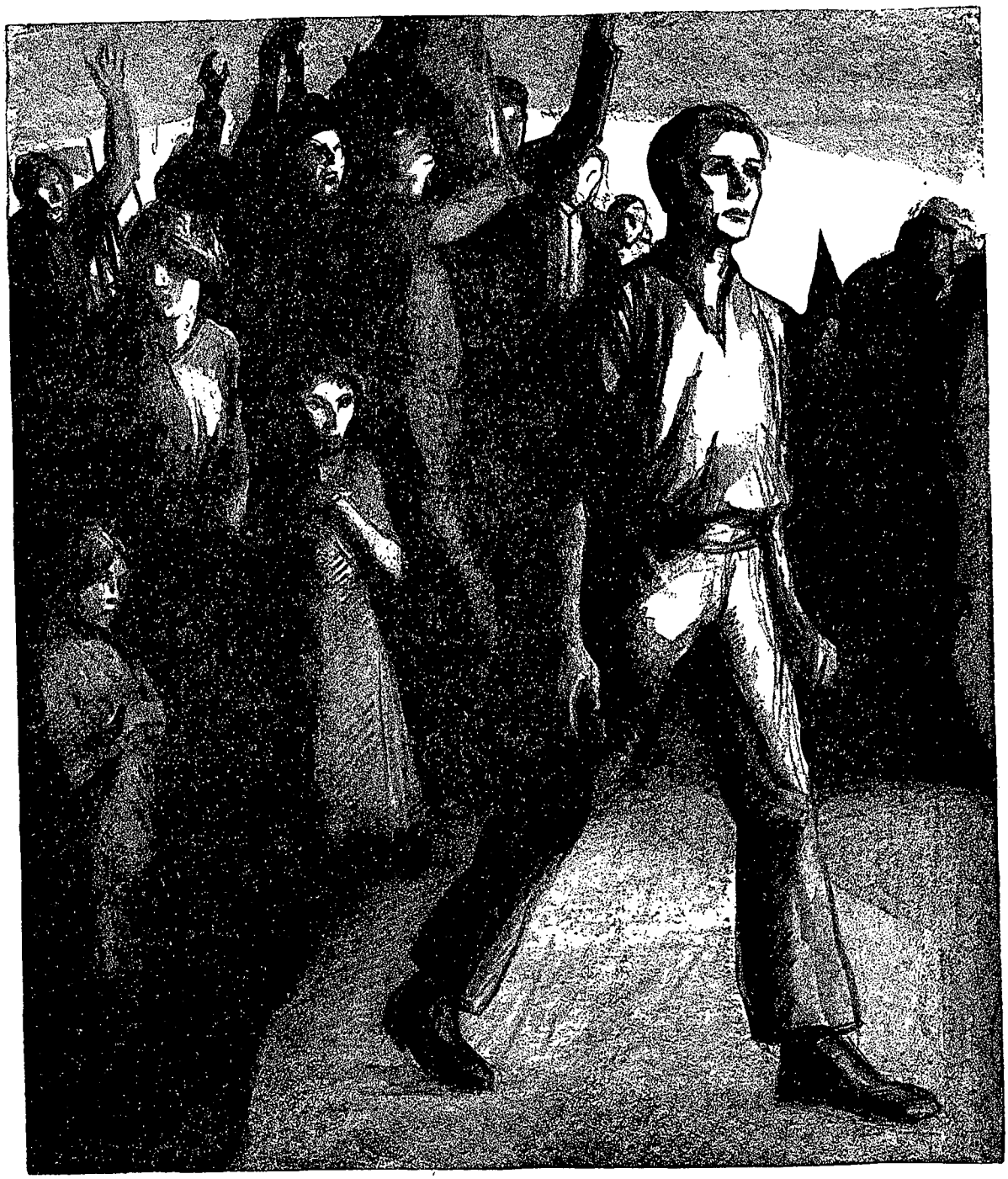

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THE SURVEY
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1926

Volume LVII
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How to Keep the Men Alive

By HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

SOMETHING of much importance, and decidedly selective in its action, has happened in Denmark in the past fifteen years to improve the likelihood of survival of men between twenty and sixty years of age. There, as here, better housing conditions and easier working hours may have played a part in the picture but it is difficult to escape the force of the silent argument of statistics that this improvement in the health of grown men is directly related to a change in habits in the consumption of alcohol. In Denmark now, in contrast to the record of other countries, men have a chance equal to that of women for survival during the years of earning.

It is common knowledge that in the world in general about one hundred and six boy babies are born for every hundred girls, and furthermore that by the end of the first year that ratio is reversed—one hundred and six girls survive for every hundred boys. With the single exception of whooping cough, every one of the common causes of child mortality bears more heavily upon boys than upon girls. By the time children have reached school age, the accumulation of hazards has caused a loss among boys from 25 to 35 per cent greater than that among girls. Between the ages of six and twenty-five the disadvantage continues, but at a lower rate; the excess in male death rates at these ages is from 10 to 15 per cent.

In the next four decades, moreover, from twenty-six years through sixty-five, the excessive loss of men, whether in the industries, farming, or other occupations, including business and clerical work, is represented by death rates which are 35 per cent, 60 per cent, 80 per cent and 85 per cent higher, respectively, than those of women of the same ages. It is this common social experience which forces the system of widow' pensions upon us, and swamps the relief agencies with dependent children.

Copenhagen and Denmark as a whole have shown no exception in the past to this experience, for during the thirty years before 1912 male mortality rates were constantly about 25 per cent higher than those of the women. But during the war period, 1913-17, that excess in the death rate of all males dropped to 17 per cent; between 1918 and 1922 it fell further to 8 per cent; and in 1923-24 it was only 4 per cent.

In the annual reports of the Medical Officer of Health of Copenhagen, and in statistics published in the leading Danish medical periodical, this experience has been analyzed by age groups. From this analysis, summarized in the accompanying table, it will be seen easily that there has been no consistent gain in the likelihood of survival of boys and men under twenty-five, but there has been a decline in excess mortality from 39 per cent to zero in men between twenty-five to thirty-five and a similarly startling drop in male excess mortality in each of the next four decades. All of the gain in chances of life for men has come to those over twenty-five, and the greatest gains for those between twenty-five and fifty-five, the ages at which alcoholism causes the most serious damage to health, and undermines resistance to infection and the capacity for self-support.

PERCENTAGE EXCESS OF MEN'S MORTALITY OVER WOMEN'S MORTALITY FOR THE DIFFERENT AGE CLASSES, DENMARK.

	0-5 yrs.	6-25 yrs.	26-35 yrs.	36-45 yrs.	46-55 yrs.	56-65	66
1903-07	30	10	39	61	80	85	26
1908-12	22	12	36	56	77	80	22
1913-17	29	11	33	55	58	59	18
1918-22	34	14	16	17	27	39	13
1923-24	38	17	0	16	11	44	14

There has been an organized temperance movement in Denmark for many years, with special emphasis against the use of strongly alcoholic drinks; and there is a high tax on spirits which may well have acted as a deterrent to their use by the thrifty people of Denmark. Like many other countries, Denmark imposed severe restrictions upon the production and sale of liquor during the war, but these have been abolished. A new licensing law became effective

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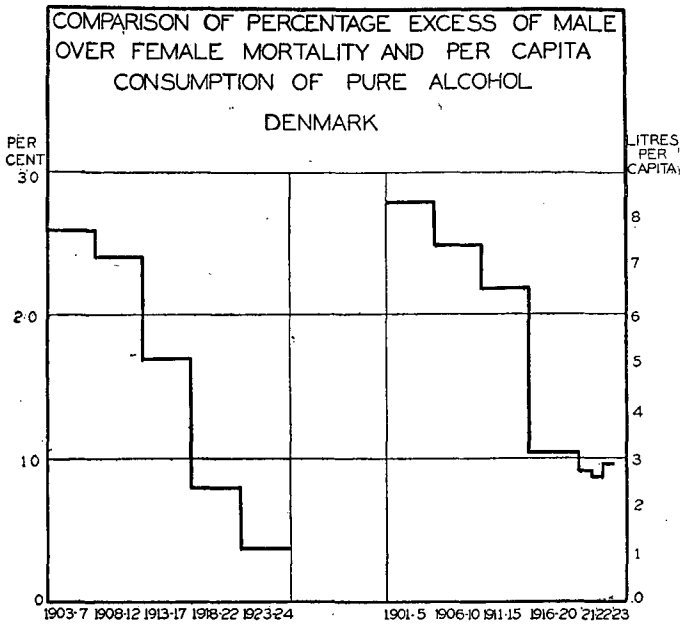


on January 1, 1925, giving increased powers to local communities to limit the number of their licensed public houses, the hours of sale, and the number of years for which a liquor license could be granted. Whatever the reason, an important change in the habits of the remarkably homogeneous and law abiding people of Denmark is revealed in the record of the annual consumption of alcoholic beverages, expressed in terms of liters of pure alcohol per capita of the entire population for the past twenty-three years. For the five-year period, 1901-1905, that average was 8.3 liters; the next quinquennial average showed a decline to 7.4 liters; in 1911-1915, to 6.5; in 1916-1920, to 3.1; and the record of 1921, 2.7 liters per capita per year, was maintained practically unchanged during the next two years, for which figures are available.

If we follow Paul Heiberg's review of this suggestive record (Journal of American Statistical Association, June, 1926, p. 213) and use the standard computations of Professor Harold Westergaard, both responsible statisticians, we find that between 1905 and 1923 a total of 46,000 years of life were saved for Denmark's population.

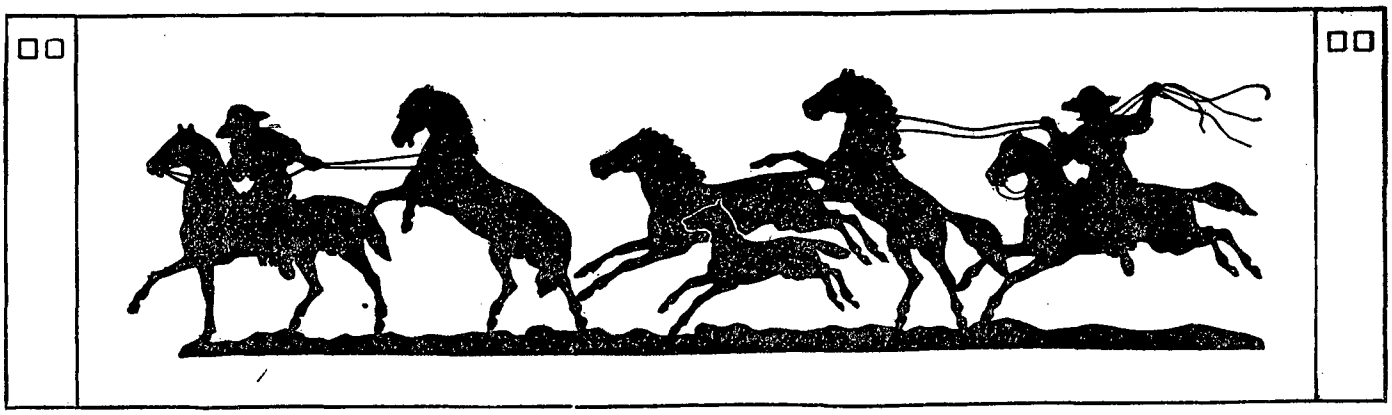
Since prevention of avoidable deaths is the primary if not the sole ambition of health officers, it is of concern to all who deal in life expectancies that elimination of deaths from alcohol even in the temperate country of Denmark in 1910 would have added a full year to the life prospect of men of twenty years of age, according to Professor Westergaard. How far Copenhagen has already traveled towards this hopeful gift to its youth is proved by the fall in the annual list of deaths from alcohol to a total of 12 in each of the years 1920-24, while in the years 1906-10 there were 96 annually.

For the people of Copenhagen this has meant a greater mean length of life for men. The gains in life expectancy between the five-year period 1906-10 and that of 1920-24 can be tabulated:

	For Men	For Women
At 15 yrs. of age	3.7 yrs. more	.4 yrs. more
" 20 " " "	3.8 " "	.4 " "
" 25 " " "	3.8 " "	.5 " "
" 35 " " "	3.4 " "	.3 " "
" 45 " " "	2.6 " "	less .1 "
" 55 " " "	1.4 " "	" .3 "
" 65 " " "	.6 " "	" .3 "
" 75 " " "	less .3 " "	" .7 "

Cause or effect, *post hoc* or *propter hoc,* coincident, accident, or intent, contributory or primary factor? No one can give with certainty the complete or perhaps the only true interpretation of the relation between alcohol and longevity or alcohol and tuberculosis or venereal disease. In the United States it will take at least a decade to disentangle truth from slander, to exclude propaganda and politics, to relearn to trust responsible opinion and the thoughtful judgment of the competent, and perhaps even then the confusion of racial and religious prejudices, the canker of bribery and bootlegging will have so deformed the social picture that pre and post prohibition experiences will still be incomparable. The more reason then to watch the relatively clear cut and experimental situations of our neighbors. While our social settlements, with sympathy and insight, are discovering the inner story of family experience among their tenement friends; while the heavy-footed professors of sociology are sorting and sampling throughout the United States with ponderous precision to learn the records of before and after in bank, shop, prison, health center and poor farm, it may well be that a clearer proof than any we can produce will come to us from over seas as in this simple truth from Copenhagen. If it is not reduction in alcoholic beverages which has brought the men of Denmark up to the level of vitality of her women, let us delve and search for the secret until we can secure equal benefits for ourselves.

Is a half bottle of Bavarian beer all around the table worth the twenty-five minutes of life it costs to each of the family? Is the doubtful joy that goes with drinking a liter of spirits worth the half day (11 hours) of life sacrificed by each one in the community? Copenhagen thinks not.



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The Gang

By FREDERIC M. THRASHER

GANGS represent the spontaneous effort of boys to create a society for themselves where none adequate to their needs exists. What boys get out of such association that they do not get otherwise under the conditions that adult society imposes is the thrill and zest of participation in common interests, more especially in corporate action, in hunting, capture, conflict, flight, and escape. Conflict with other gangs and the world about them furnishes the occasion for their exciting group activities.

The characteristic habitat of Chicago's numerous gangs is that broad twilight zone of railroads and factories, of deteriorating neighborhoods and shifting populations, which borders the city's central business district on the north, on the west, and on the south. They dwell among the shadows of the slum. Yet, dreary and repelling as their external environment must seem to the casual observer, their life is to the initiated at once strange and fascinating. They live in a world distinctly their own—far removed from the humdrum existence of the average citizen.

The broad expanse of gangland with its intricate tribal and intertribal relationships is medieval and feudal in its organization rather than modern and urban. The hang-out of the gang is its castle and the center of a feudal estate which it guards most jealously. Gang leaders hold sway like barons of old, watchful of invaders and ready to swoop down upon the lands of rivals and carry off booty or prisoners or to inflict punishment upon their enemies. Sometimes their followers become roving, lawless bands, prowling over a large territory and victimizing the community.

THIS feudal warfare is carried on more or less continuously. Disorder and violence, escaping the ordinary controls of the police and other social agencies of the community, are so pronounced here as to give the impression that these regions are almost beyond the pale of civil society. In some respects they are like a frontier; in others, like a "no man's land," lawless, godless, wild.

The most important conclusion suggested by a study of the location and distribution of the 1,313 gangs investigated in Chicago is that *gangland represents a geographically and socially interstitial area in the city*. Probably the most significant concept of the study is the term *interstitial*—that is, pertaining to spaces that intervene between one thing and another. In nature foreign matter tends to collect and cake in every crack, crevice, and cranny—interstices. There are also fissures and breaks in the structure of social organization. The gang may be regarded as an interstitial element in the framework of society, and gangland as an interstitial region in the layout of the city.

The gang is almost invariably characteristic of regions that are interstitial to the more settled, more stable, and better organized portions of the city. The empire of the gang occupies what is often called "the poverty belt"—a region characterized by deteriorating neighborhoods, shifting populations, and the mobility and disorganization of the slum. As better residential districts recede before the encroachments of business and industry, the gang develops as one manifestation of the economic, moral, and cultural frontier which marks the interstice.

The traditional explanation of the gang and one supported by the older type of individual psychology has been to dismiss gang behaviour as due to an instinct. But theoretical psychology no longer supports instincts as the bases of human behavior. Man has fewer instincts than other animals. His nature is plastic and he excels in his capacity to adapt himself to a multiplicity of situations for which instinct could not fit him. He is primarily a creature of habit, but the pattern of his habits may be infinitely varied in varied circumstances.

What writers on the gang have attributed to instinct is the result of pervasive social habits arising out of the human struggle for existence and social preferment. The gang is a function of specific conditions, and it does not tend to appear in the absence of these conditions. Under other circumstances the boy becomes a "solitary type," enters into a relation of palship or intimacy with one or more other boys in separate pairs, or is incorporated into play-groups of a different sort or into more conventional or older groups. What relationships he has with others are determined by a complex of conditioning factors which direct his interests and his habits. It is not instinct, but experience—the way he is conditioned—that fixes his social relations.

A definition of the gang, then, based upon this study of 1,313 cases, may be formulated as follows:

The gang is an interstitial group originally formed spontaneously, and then integrated through conflict. It is characterized by the following types of behavior: meeting face to face, milling, movement through space, conflict, and planning. The result of this collective behavior is the development of tradition, unreflective internal structure, esprit de corps, solidarity, morale, group awareness, and attachment to a local territory.

THERE is no hard and fast dividing line between predatory gangs of boys and criminal groups of younger and older

More than 1,300 gangs in Chicago, including in their membership 25,000 boys and men, have been isolated and studied in a remarkable investigation which Professor Thrasher is reporting in a book shortly to be published (The Gang, University of Chicago Press, publication date October 25, price postpaid of The Survey, $3.10). Here his concept of the gang as a social makeshift, which naturally appears in the cracks of the community, and which inevitably fosters the spread of crime, is briefly set forth.

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adults. They merge into each other by imperceptible gradations, and the latter have their real explanation, for the most part, in the former. Many delinquent gangs contain both adolescents and adults. The adult criminal gang, which is, as a rule, largely composed of men in their early twenties, carries on traditions thoroughly established in the adolescent group. It represents a development and perpetuation of the younger gang or at least of the habits and attitudes of individuals trained in younger groups. It is clear, therefore, that crime, in so far as it is facilitated by the gang, can only be understood by following it to its roots and beginnings in the boys' gang. In Chicago the gang is probably the most important single factor—in that section of the boy population from which the majority of delinquents come—in determining how adolescent needs for social adjustment shall be met.

There is in Chicago as in other large cities an "underworld," an area of life and activity characterized by the absence of the ordinary conventions and largely given over to predatory activities and the exploitation of the baser human appetites and passions. This is the criminal community. Besides the human riff-raff, the hangers-on, the questionable characters, the semi-criminal classes, it includes an estimated population of 10,000 professional criminals, that is, those engaged habitually in major crimes only, according to estimates of the Chicago Crime Commission.

In certain respects the criminal community assumes the characteristics of what has been described as a moral region. Such a moral region is constituted by gangland with all its tentacles and satellites. The hang-outs of the gangs in these areas are street corners, saloons, pool-rooms, cabarets, roadhouses, clubrooms, and so on. Each place of resort is subject to influences from others of a similar type; one example of these interlocking influences is afforded by the "grapevine system," whereby information travels very rapidly through the length and breadth of the underworld.

One of the outstanding characteristics of the criminal community is what might be called its fluidity. While there is considerable definite organization, largely of the feudal type, there is no hard and fast structure of a permanent character. Certain persons of certain groups may combine for some criminal exploit or business, but shortly they may be bitter enemies and killing each other. Leaders come and go easily; sometimes with more or less violence, but without much disturbance to the usual activities of the gangs. There is always a new crop coming on—of younger fellows from whom emerge men to fill the shoes of "the old barons" when they are slain or "put away." The passing of an O'Bannian simply transfers the crown to a new head or creates an opportunity for a new gang.

Although organized crime must not be visualized as a vast edifice of hard and fast structures, there is a surprising amount of organization of a kind in the criminal community. There is a certain division of labor manifesting itself in specialized persons and specialized groups performing different but related functions.

The specialized individuals in the criminal community are sometimes free lances, sometimes incorporated into a definite group. At the top are the professional criminals, who might be called, to use a business term, criminal enterprisers (or entrepeneurs). They provide the organizing energy and business brains of crime; they are the so-called "silk-hat" gangsters who engineer the larger illegal enterprises. They must keep in close touch with certain specialized persons or groups, who perform certain indispensable functions for them. Fences or syndicates of fences must be employed to dispose of stolen goods or securities; doctors and sometimes even hospitals must be relied upon to furnish medical assistance to criminals without giving information to the police; fixers and political manipulators must be depended upon to use their influence with the law; professional or obligated bondsmen must be found to provide bail; shrewd criminal lawyers must be engaged to handle criminal interests in the courts; and corrupt officials and other "inside men" must be sought out to help engineer illegal exploits—all these together constitute, to borrow another commercial phrase, the "functional middlemen" of the underworld.

Besides these more specialized factors, the criminal enterpriser uses many other elements in the criminal community. There are habitual criminals who can be depended upon for definite assistance or parts in special jobs. Then there are numerous bums, toughs, ex-convicts, and floaters who frequent underworld areas and who are willing to make casual alliances for the commission of crime. Besides these there is a semi-criminal class of hangers-on and abettors who are more or less continuously employed at legitimate work, but who engage in questionable practices for side money.

Some criminal gangs are direct perpetuations of adolescent groups which have drifted into crime. In many cases, however, the seasoned criminal group represents a coalescence of various elements in the criminal community, which has been described above. As gang boys grow up, a selective process takes place: many of them become reincorporated into family and community life, but there remains a certain criminal residue upon whom gang training has, for one reason or another, taken fast hold.

Some of these boys may be mental or temperamental variants, but many of them are the victims of peculiar combinations of circumstances which make social adjustment difficult. Among the most important of the factors which contribute to make them gravitate toward crime are the possession of court records and the experiences and associations undergone in so-called "reform" and penal institutions. It is not surprising, there-

The Juvenile County Jail

I'm a mortal Christian hobo,
A-listen to my tale.
I know a place dey sleep in,
Called juvenile county jail.

De beds are made of iron,
Dey're a hangin' on de wall,
Where de cockroaches an' de bedbugs
Are at a game of ball.

De score was six to twenty
De bedbugs were ahead,
When a cockroach knocked a home-run,
And knocked me out of bed.

It's five o'clock in de mornin'
When de feedman comes around
With a piece of bread an' butter
Dat nearly weighs a pound.

De coffee tastes like turpentine,
De bread is mighty stale,
For dat's de way dey treat you
In de juvenile county jail.

—*Gang boys' song.*

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The Dirty Dozen—A Typical Gang

Written statement by a former member of the gang

THE Dirty Dozen began merely as the result of a dozen or more fellows (from sixteen to twenty-two years of age) meeting casually on a street corner at the entrance of one of Chicago's parks and later on in "Mike's" poolroom a short distance away. Most of the boys were loafers, who spent their time swimming, playing baseball and football, shooting craps, or sitting around and talking. They liked brawls and fights, and the gang helped to satisfy these wants with less personal discomfort than might occur if one fellow alone started hostilities or tried to steal something. Of their various activities, some form of conflict seems to have been the chief.

There was war between the gang and the police, for even though the latter did not always have any particular offense for which the fellows were wanted, they did try to break up the group whenever it congregated on the corner.

The gang as a whole often came into direct conflict with other gangs. One night at the old Imperial Theater, the Dirty Dozen found themselves seated opposite the "Chi" gang, their rival in football and baseball. During the show, which was poor vaudeville, the fellows started to hurl remarks at each other. The verbal conflict grew into a near-riot, which continued until the police came.

The Dirty Dozen, however, was capable of collective action against other enemies than rival gangs. One night while the race riots of 1919 were at their height, the gang, armed with revolvers, blackjacks, and knives, started out to get the "niggers."

At Thirty-fifth and State streets, five miles or more from their own territory, and after some preliminary skirmishes, "Shaggy" Martin threw the trolley of a street car filled with colored people. The rest of the gang, which had increased to about twenty by this time, piled on. "Shaggy," who was left alone at the back to hold the trolley-rope, was standing there with it in one hand and a billy in the other when a colored woman slashed him across the heart with a razor. Then someone hit her, and another fellow "got" her husband.

Shaggy died in the patrol on the way to the hospital. "Swede" Carlson, the only fellow the police caught at that time, said that his last words were, "What will mother say?" The gang took up a collection for flowers, but the direct result of the episode was a desire for revenge. They killed two negroes and "beat up" five more after the death of Shaggy.

The standing of each fellow in the gang was determined by competition and conflict within the group itself. Each member was trying to outdo the others in football and everything else. There was always a struggle for the leadership, which usually went to the best fighters.

MEMBERS of the gang often engaged in shady exploits as individuals or in pairs. Ellman and "Dago" were always managing to make some money in one way or another. At one time Ellman told me of the "booze" ring, for which he and Dago did the delivering. Where they got the booze I never found out, but they made $25 or $30 apiece for a night's work and gambled it away at a place which was a regular Monte Carlo, with tables for crap-shooting, and caller's chips which were purchased from the cashier.

The same pair were involved in the robbery of a golf shelter. Owing to Ellman's carelessness, he was followed and arrested. He was convicted of petty larceny and put on probation, but the police could not make him reveal the name of his pal. By keeping mum he saved Dago a lot of trouble.

ANOTHER example of loyalty was an incident which occurred when the gang went to Detroit. Dago gave the money which he was to use for carfare home to a younger fellow. Although it was winter, he himself rode the blind. Since the train took water on the fly, he was frozen to the engine when it pulled in.

The gang also enjoyed many quiet evenings. It was the rule for the fellows to meet at Mike's on winter nights to shoot pool and talk. In the summer their hang-out was on the corner at the entrance to the park. There was a tendency to stick together at all times in play, just as in other activities. Every year they played football, for which they tried to keep in training, and they developed a good team.

One of the exploits of the gang was a migration from Chicago to Detroit when high wages were being paid to automobile-workers. They rented a house there and the whole gang lived together. Even though they were making fabulous wages, they did not save a cent, and finally came back to Chicago—broke. It was this Detroit adventure that made bums out of most of them. They had drunken orgies almost every night at their house, and the crap games took their money.

The gang controlled its individual members, particularly when the group was together. As individuals, and in other group relationships they were not so bad, but in the gang they tried to act as tough as possible. The man who danced, who went out with girls, or who was well-mannered was ostracized. Ellman, who liked to give the impression that he was a ruffian, was going with a girl on the sly. When he was with the gang he was one of the meanest fellows in it, but when he went out with his girl he was very courteous, quitting his loud talk and dropping his braggadocian air.

In the last few years the gang has disintegrated. There has been a tendency for its members to be incorporated into the more conventional activities of society. The majority of them seem to have become more settled in their mode of life. Some have moved away. Even the fellows who have changed, however, are still pretty low under the polished surface. Gang habits and influences still persist.

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fore, that so many of the members of our criminal gangs are ex-reform-school boys and ex-convicts. Once having become habituated to a life of crime they continue to attach themselves to criminal groups as the opportunity may offer. Thus, from one point of view, organized crime, manifesting itself in gangs and in the larger structures within which gangs function, may be regarded as the result of a process of sifting and selection whose final product is a criminal residue.

Chicago Daily Tribune

THE WORLD'S GREATEST NEWSPAPER

HOME EDITION

FINDS 1,313 'GANGS' IN CITY

Britain Plans to Dun Nine Nations

FARM AID FIRST, TAX REDUCTION LATER, IS PLAN

Cuts to Be Based on Surplus.

NEWS SUMMARY

CHURCHILL FIRM FOR PAYMENT ON BILLIONS OWED

Only Two Have Paid Interest.

Crime Cradle, Says U. of C. Professor

RUBBER JUDGES BLAMED AS AIDS OF GUN TOTERS

'Head in Hand,' Says Chief Collins.

NIGHTLY AIR MAIL CHICAGO TO EAST

From the book jacket of The Gang by Frederic M. Thrasher, University of Chicago Press

This residue may be thought of as constituting a large part of the criminal community (the underworld). The gang forms in this social stratum for much the same reasons that it forms among the free-floating boy population of Chicago's junior gangland; it enables its members to achieve a more adequate satisfaction of their wishes than they could have as individuals. It provides fellowship, status, excitement, and security in much the same way that the adolescent gang does for the gang boy. Unlike the juniors, however, the chief motive which usually prompts the member of the criminal gang to enter such a group is economic. He enters its fellowship with a much more definite conception as to what he is to derive from it—namely, profit, and that profit from crime.

THE gang, then, while it is not the only element in organized crime, plays an important part in the mobilization of the criminal and the organization of the criminal community. Ten thousand professional criminals have received gang training, and it is evident that crime in Chicago roots in the gang as its basic organized unit, no matter how it may have become elaborated into rings and syndicates.

I do not advance the thesis that the gang is a "cause" of crime. It would be more accurate to say that the gang is an important contributing factor, facilitating the commission of crime and greatly extending its spread and range. The organization of the gang, the protection which it affords, especially in combination with a ring or a syndicate, make it a superior instrument for the execution of criminal enterprises. Its demoralizing influence on its members arises through the dissemination of criminal technique, and the propagation, through mutual excitation, of interests and attitudes which make crime easier (less inhibited) and more attractive.

How to procure junk, open merchandise cars, rob bread boxes, snatch purses, fleece a storekeeper, empty slot machines, pick a pocket, go shoplifting, "roll" a drunken man, get skeleton keys, steal an automobile, sell stolen goods to "fences," purchase guns, engineer a holdup, operate stills, burglarize a store, trick the police, and so on—this is the type of technical knowledge for which the gang acts as a clearing-house.

Curiously enough, a boy sometimes becomes aware that the gang is providing him with an education. In one case it was maintained that gang schooling in automotive mechanics was better than technical high-school training:

G—— is a seventeen-year-old, a handsome, bright-eyed member of the Glorianna gang. A casual conversation is sufficient to indicate that he is full of energy and ideas of his own. In a two-hour discussion with the investigator he maintained that he could get a better training in automotive mechanics in his gang than in any high school in Chicago. Several of the members are expert mechanics and they have a "great big book" which they consult in cases of doubt. This gang is alleged to have from twelve to fourteen stolen cars on hand all the time. Some of these are torn down and the parts sold, others are dismantled, and still others are rebuilt; the gang maintains an outlet store for the disposal of such material; hence, this type of knowledge is directly related to their activities and stands them in good stead in a practical way.

Experience in a gang of the predatory type usually develops in the boy an attitude of indifference to law and order—one of the basic traits of the finished gangster. The personal and property rights of outsiders, who are regarded as proper prey, are constantly disregarded. A growing attitude of superiority to the rest of the world is greatly augmented by the feeling of group power and security. Recklessness is generated and in some cases unbelievable daring and impertinence. Too often this attitude is so well taken—through police connivance and political protection—that a terrorized community raises no voice to challenge it. Nor is official collusion always necessary to its maintenance; for the members of a gang, having some reason for enmity, may "mob," beat, or take "pot" shots at officers of the law.

The gang boy very early acquires the independence which is characteristic of the finished gangster—learns to sleep away from home and live on his own resources for weeks at a time. He frequents the parks, the canals and river fronts, the forest preserves; he helps the farmers of adjacent lands in their busy seasons; he "hangs out" in the newspaper alleys. He soon learns to feel dependence on nobody and even if he loses his original gang, it is easy enough to fall in with another. He is ready to cut his moorings when occasion demands:

A boy of fifteen ran away from home with a gang of three other boys. He had been a member of a boys' club and his father's employer had paid for a camp membership for him. The gang, however, had greater attractions. He was not heard of until three months later when his gang was arrested in a room in a cheap hotel on Harrison Street. Here the police found $10,000 worth of goods, the proceeds of from forty to fifty burglaries. The "racket" was to call up a house and make sure no one was at home and then put a little boy through a window to open the door.

Finally, the boy usually acquires (*Continued on page* 109)

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The Common Welfare

DISASTER hit Florida at the wane of one of the most spectacular land booms which ever has dazzled this boom-loving country. Land values had fallen sharply; small investors who had taken on commitments on a shoestring with the hope of a rapid turnover were finding themselves unable to live up to the terms of their purchase; and the mortgage companies were faced with the alternative of wholesale, overwhelming foreclosures or equally difficult deflation. Where there had been 50,000 real estate salesmen, one newspaper correspondent estimates, only 2,500 remained.

So already, aside from the irreparable loss of life, the tornado is seen to have a silver lining. Cash had been tight in Florida, and now millions will come in from the insurance and millions from the relief and rehabilitation funds sent through the American Red Cross. "Miami of the reconstruction period and Miami of the boom days is almost the same thing," a dispatch declares. Once more there is work for everyone—perhaps for every one willy-nilly, for already there have been protests from Negro organizations against the forced conscription of colored workers—and of colored workers only—for reconstruction work; and the trades unions have countered the suggestion that they accept reduced wages with the answer that they haven't noticed the banks giving away money.

In even an established community, it is an inconceivably complicated task to piece together shattered fragments and set the social framework up again in working order. Elsewhere in this issue (p. 98) a former staff member of the American Red Cross describes the technique of business rehabilitation after disaster as it has been practiced in some of the recent crises, notably in work after the tornado which swept Missouri, Illinois, and Indiana in March, 1925. The general accounting of that Tornado Commission, published only a few days before the storm in Florida, shows that three million dollars was spent over a period of fifteen months in food, medical aid, clothing, transportation, burial expense, reconstruction of buildings, household furnishings, livestock, farm implements, seed and grain, tools, and labor for families; in the rebuilding of business structures and the provision of new stocks and equipment; the repair of community buildings; in a rural caravan in Indiana and Illinois and a special trust fund for the Illinois orphans.

In the toll of lives lost and property destroyed the Florida disaster ranks in magnitude with the Illinois tornado and the San Francisco earthquake and fire. This country has been forced by this storm to realize that Florida is not only a playground of the rich and the getting rich, but the home of ordinary people whose means of living and working has been carried away. Already three million dollars has been subscribed toward the five million which Red Cross leaders declare essential. It cannot be too strongly hoped that the very proper local outburst of initiative in reconstruction will be guided by the experience of men who have been trained in disaster relief through their regular service for the Red Cross, the kind of service which no community could afford to maintain in readiness for itself, or to buy for itself in time of need.

TO mention "Red Cross" to men and women who have known service in it is to call up the gentle, smiling face of Ernest P. Bicknell. Wherever there has been disaster and devastation during the past twenty years, there he has been also. He helped San Francisco rebuild from its ashes in 1906; in 1909 he carried American aid to the earthquake sufferers in Sicily and Calabria; and the war years saw his wise and humane direction of American Red Cross work in France, Belgium and the Balkans. More recently he has been serving as vice-chairman of the American Red Cross. His friends both in the service and out of it will be happy to hear of his recent appointment as acting director general of the League of Red Cross Societies, to serve until May, 1927, when the Board of Governors will meet in Paris to make a permanent appointment. In this position he succeeds Sir Claude Hill, who has been recalled to the service of the British Government as governor of the Isle of Man.

AN era of industrial peace and good will, brought about through employe stock ownership, is being foretold by a number of employer-prophets. Thomas E. Mitten of Philadelphia, speaking before the Congress of American Industry, stated that the employes of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company own nearly one-half of the company's $30,000,000 common stock and added:

"Humanizing the capitalistic system has been fully accomplished so far as P.R.T. is concerned, the basis of its success having been built on a foundation of trust and confidence. . . . America's best way to overcome industrial autocracy is to harness Labor and Capital into an industrial democracy for greater production, with proper distribution of the resultant profits. . . . When physical merger of Capital and Labor is thus effected, so that they have but one interest instead of two . . . there can be no strikes, . . . because a man does not destroy that which is his own."

At the Yorkshire conference on Labor co-partnerships, which brought together, according to the Christian Science Monitor, "a number of British employers who are making

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progress toward the achievement of industrial peace," Theodore C. Taylor, a woolen manufacturer of Battley, said, "The fear of mass management is closely akin to mismanagement." He added that the enmity of trade union leaders to co-partnership is decreasing as the movement becomes better understood.

Edward L. Greene, managing director of the National Better Business Bureaus, Inc., of New York, in an address before the Financial Advertisers' Association, quoted figures showing that American workmen now own $700,000,000 worth of stock in industries in which they are employed. He stated that 300 corporations now have some form of employe stock ownership, usually based on installment purchases, and cited the examples of the Standard Oil Company and the P.R.T.

Employe stock ownership is discussed from another angle in the weekly bulletin of the Catholic Welfare Council, which takes its figures from the report of the Federal Trade Commission on National Wealth and Income.

"Only 75 out of 1,000 holders of common stock are employes and these own a still smaller proportion of the stock," the bulletin states. "Out of every 1,000 shares the 75 employes own but 15 shares. In preferred stock there is little difference. Thirty-five out of 1,000 stockholders are employes, and they own but 19 out of every 1,000 shares. . . . In the leather products industries the highest record is made. Of 1,000 common and preferred stockholders, 316 common stockholders and 221 preferred stockholders are employes. . . . They own 33 shares of common stock and 46 shares of preferred stock out of 1,000." In interpreting these figures, the Council points out that:

"All this goes to show how steep a road American labor must travel to reach the goal when the working people will share proportionately in the ownership of industry. It punctures the myth that has been carefully blown up in the United States. American industry is not on the high road toward democratization through diffusion of stock ownership."

WHERE the bonds of diplomacy proved to be "scraps of paper," Big Business has stepped in to create a new international alliance. A continental iron and steel trust, with France, Germany, Belgium and Luxemburg as its members, has been consummated. Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia will probably be brought into the combination. The new international organization will limit the annual production of European steel, and also provide machinery for fixing its price. Its present annual output will range between a minimum of 26,000,000 tons and a maximum of 30,000,000. Great Britain and the United States are outside the new industrial alliance.

According to The Times, "The basis of the agreement is of course cooperation between the vast ore mines of Lorraine and the coke production of the Ruhr. A complicated system has been worked out for the French to supply ore to Germany and Germany to supply coke to France, under advantagous conditions." The Times correspondent adds, "It had often been alleged that English diplomats worked to prevent a conclusion of the accord signed today."

E. H. Gary, chairman of the United States Steel Corporation, expressed what is probably the attitude of most American steel executives: "I hope this consortium will meet with great success. I think its managers will be friendly toward American interests, and the sentiment certainly will be reciprocated by the steel interests of America."

Labor leaders who, at this writing, are gathering for the annual convention of the American Federation of Labor at Detroit, are quite in accord with Judge Gary's views. According to The Times, "Delegates of the International Metal Workers Federation . . . warned the American labor movement that the formation of European trusts, combinations and cartels . . . was a menace to American as much as to European labor and pleaded for affiliation of the 500,000 metal trades workers in this county with the 2,000,000 metal workers in the European organization. . . . Robert Fechner, vice president of the International Association of Machinists [which recently joined the I.M.W.F.] predicted that further affiliation was inevitable."

It is possible that the continental steel combine is to be the cause of effective alliance on another level, and that a genuine international organization of workers will cut across national boundaries in the wake of the new steel trust.

LAST year the students of City College, New York, carried on a heated campaign against compulsory military drill as a part of the college curriculum. In a referendum, the student body voted overwhelmingly against the compusory feature (see The Survey, Jan. 1, p. 439). The college paper was suppressed because of the violence of its comment on the situation. During the whole year, the student body was in a turmoil, and the college seethed with indignation against "militarism on the American campus" and "the Prussianizing of our institutions."

With the beginning of the new school year came the announcement that incoming freshmen might choose between the hitherto required course in military training, given by United States army officers, and a course in "civilian drill" to be given under the direction of the hygiene department of the college. Acting President Frederick B. Robinson described the course as a "scientific experiment" and hoped that it "will be of service to those who are seeking the truth and who wish to mold the college curriculum so as to give the students the greatest benefit in mental and physical development."

But the response of the vociferously pacifist student body was "disappointing," Dr. Robinson reports. Of 718 incoming freshmen, only 144 elected the civilian drill, with its scientific exercises and its drill costume of "striped trousers, oxford shirt, black sneakers, tie, belt and sweater." With the compulsory feature removed, five hundred and sixty-four young City Collegians, of their own free will, chose to "rush into khaki" and take the military drill which, last year, was denounced not only as "tyrannical" but "offensive in principle" to the students.

This is a shift in fashion; another proof that "you can lead a horse to water"; a fine example of changing opinions in the college generations; demonstration that youth is fickle and inconsistent; tribute to President Robinson's insight into human nature; convincing test that the effect of any propaganda is short-lived—or what have you?

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EDUCATION

Schools in the Balance

By H. PARSONS MARLEY

AN unusual situation exists today in Greensboro, North Carolina with respect to the public schools. They opened for the fall term under a plan of "informal operation," a sort of armed truce pending the outcome of litigation in the courts. The difficulty arose when the financial interests of Greensboro, mostly cotton mills, disagreed over who should pay and who should not pay the rather heavy city school tax. So far the odds have been against the schools. While awaiting the action of the Court of Appeals, the 10,000 children and teachers are going ahead as though nothing had happened, although the available money will be gone in about six months. By that time, the Court will have acted and school authorities will know whether they can continue their work.

The history of the present tangle involves two contending theories of education and the issue was clearly stated by the enlightened chairman of the city board of education, now a defunct organization. In the open column of the leading paper he said that "no owner of an industrial plant has a right to look at the six-year-old boy of a cotton mill operative and say how much or how little education that boy shall receive, that he and his grandchildren may remain cotton mill operatives."

In 1923, Greensboro's official population was only 19,861, but every citizen knew that practically speaking, there were almost 50,000 folks in Greater Greensboro. Under the leadership of an able secretary, the Chamber of Commerce launched a drive to enlarge the city limits. It became a community enterprise, a matter for good citizens to support, and no doubt it would have materialized had not the cotton mills on the northeast corner of the town objected. They marshaled the voting strength of their fifteen thousand village inhabitants and defeated the project. By doing this, they saved forty thousand dollars a year in tax money.

But the city authorities were not to be outdone. The four-square miles comprising the city in no sense represented the taxable wealth of the city, and schools and other public utilities were being seriously embarrassed. Something had to be done. Consequently, an agreement was made with the mill authorities that another election should be called which should have the mill support, providing the mills should be exempt in educational matters. This election carried and the State Assembly granted the extension, but explicitly stated in the enactment that "the territory embodied in the old city limits is and shall continue to be and remain an independent school district." Another section of the law said that it should remain that way "until changed in the manner provided by law."

Everybody had apparently got what they wanted, but they didn't live happily ever afterwards. Matters which are settled unjustly, are not settled. The mills paid various municipal taxes but received back from the city approximately $35,000 a year for police and health protection, street maintenance and cleaning and garbage collection. Evidently, the mill villages were still doing business their own way in other things besides the schools.

The schools were nominally under the County Board, but practically under the control of the two mills. The president of the largest mill took a genuine interest in "his" schools and prided himself upon their efficiency, their economy of operation, and their strict avoidance of any of the modern theories of education. He hired and fired the teachers and at the end of the month the salary check was from the company. The teachers always received a large bonus at Christmas, their pay was usually a little higher than that of the average county teacher, and they worked nine months instead of the usual eight. The mill paid the county tax of thirty-nine cents plus 25 cents special tax for schools, which was returned to the mill, since it paid the teachers and owned and maintained the school buildings. Indeed, the mill kept school as long as the city, did it more cheaply and had a "better" curriculum.

In the meantime, the Greensboro schools were growing in many ways. Art, music, and home economics came to play an increasing part in the curriculum. The old high school building became overcrowded. With all this growth there wasn't enough money to keep the city schools going. Whereas the city area was now about seventeen square miles, the school area was only four. People who moved to the city couldn't understand why they had to pay forty-five dollars tuition to send their children to high school. Telling them that they lived outside the old city limits and that they paid a smaller tax for that reason, made little impression. The forty-five dollars looked big, especially if more than one child was of high school age. The tax rate of $1.24 seemed burdensome to those in the old city limits, and industries which contemplated moving to Greensboro, picked out other towns where the pasture was greener.

SOMETHING had to be done. The city school limits must be extended, and in the winter of 1925, action to this end was begun by the city council and the city school board. But the city school board repeated the mistake made in 1923. At the request of the mill interests, they left them outside the prospective extension. One of the members of the board was the widow of the founder of one of the mills and the majority stock holder. Another member stated that "we can't force the mills in if they don't want to come in. They'll pull us down to their level instead of us pulling them up." That was the general sentiment of the community. The Chamber of Commerce said "better to lose an industry for the city than to have an industry lose in the city." A mother said in parent-teacher meeting, "I'm not sure we want the mill children in our schools."

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But some members of the community were beginning to assemble the facts and insist upon a just settlement. A committee of the Ministerial Association brought in a report to that body which was said to contain "dynamite." It was promptly tabled and the clergy went on about their business, which at that particular time was a great unified soul-saving campaign. The report quoted from a personal conversation with the president of the larger mill in which he said that "unless a child is in the mill by sixteen, he will never go into the mill, and we've got to have operators for our cotton mills." The report also quoted from a doctor's thesis on North Carolina mill schools showing that in Greensboro mill villages only 73.7 per cent of the thirteen-year-old children were in school and only 40 per cent of the fourteen-year-old children were in school. The compulsory education law for the State permits the child to stop the day he is fourteen. In the seventh grade of one of the mill schools, which is the highest grade taught, there were only about half as many pupils as in the other grades. A copy of the report was sent to the president who was also school superintendent. He publicly condemned the document at a school meeting in the Court House. He said that on reading it he immediately had had his teachers stop work and go out to make a canvass and they found only one thirteen-year-old girl who wasn't at work. "I'll make a proposition," he said, "if the mill people want to come into the city schools, we'll let them. Put it to a vote."

It was put to a vote, but in a rather roundabout way. Some thought that getting a nine-months county-wide school tax would automatically solve the problem. To this, the farmers strenuously objected, so the people voted on an eight-months county-wide school and it carried, largely through the efforts of Greensboro. The same measure had been defeated the year before. The morning of election a signed statement appeard in the paper from the President of the larger mill: "In order to avoid any misunderstanding as to how I stand on today's school election I wish to state that I am in favor of the county-wide eight-months school law and am going to vote for it."

But Greensboro schools didn't yet have the relief they needed. After this election the city was on an equal footing with the balance of the county. An election was immediately called for May, 1926, at which time the enlarged city school limits were to be either adopted or rejected. The proposed limits were to include all the new city with the exception of the mill villages and were to take in an entire township on the west. The city was growing west and it was explained that eventually all this would be Greensboro. Unfortunately, there was another cotton mill out in this territory, a terra cotta plant and other industrial interests. These industries couldn't see why they should pay the city school tax, while the other mill, within the city limits, was exempt. The more they thought about it, the more enraged they became, and carried on a campaign in which they placed the issue squarely before the people. They put page advertisements in the papers with maps, shaded to show the absurd situation. "Citizens of Greensboro, is it fair?" were the big headlines, "All we ask is fair play." The issue was becoming clearer and clearer. What the ministers were afraid to tackle, and what the public conscience would not do, conflict among the financial interests was achieving. There is little doubt that money talks, especially when it feels itself jeopardized by high taxes or capital levy.

The attitude of the city school authorities was one of conciliation toward the mills inside the limits, but hostility toward those without. They based their position on the ground that the former had in an orderly way asked to "remain outside" whereas the latter had indicated in one of the public meetings that there should be a nine-months school for the entire county. The mills within the city limits having a thirteen million dollar valuation, had more to lose and were more shrewd about the matter.

The school children worked hard for the election. Women's clubs and others put in some long hours for it. Perhaps they did not understand the complex situation very clearly, but they knew that new buildings were needed and that it wasn't right for the widow with five children to pay $225 tuition for the privilege of sending them to the public schools of the city in which she lived. The election carried, creating the enlarged district and allowing for a bond issue of $2,300,000.

By summer, when the bonds were offered for sale, the defeated industries had secured a restraining order. Their attorneys drew up a petition to the Superior Court embodying enough legal technicalities to cause this judge to rule in favor of the plaintiffs. In his decision he "perpetually enjoined" the Guilford County Board of Education "from exercising any dominion or control over the public schools situated in the territory which prior to 1923 constituted the corporate limits of the city." His decision was based partly on the fact that the city school board had deeded over to the county board the school property in the old city limits, thus clearing the way for a new and more comprehensive city school system. This he said was illegal as well as the election which preceded it.

THUS it appears that Greensboro's schools are bottled up. One editorial called it "paralysis." Because of the difficulty, a public benefactor, himself a cotton magnate, has withdrawn an offer to give to the city a $100,000 site for a new high school close to a subdivision he is developing. The outcome is problematical, but however the Court of Appeals rules, there is bound to be a violent reaction. If it throws out the decision of the Supreme Court and the city goes ahead with its enlargement, then the industrial interests in the suburbs are going to complain very vigorously. If the decision stands and the schools are reduced from nine to six months, then the community is going to rise up in righteous indignation.

Whichever way the decision is made, the mills which held back in 1923 and again in 1925, are going to be drawn in, and become full fledged city schools instead of mill village schools. They cannot hold out indefinitely against these other financial interests, nor can they hope to keep the community forever at arms length with respect to their affairs. They have the same street signs which are in the city; they enjoy fire protection from the city and are beginning to buy water from the city. Before long their dingy school buildings, some of them wooden, will have to be replaced by modern structures, and the mill philosophy of education must give way to the best of modern educational theory. Incidentally, their huge property valuation must in time be thrown into the common hopper so that the taxes will be reduced and folks won't be turned away from town. Medievalism and prejudice and avarice die hard, but they die. In the meantime, the schools are in the balance.

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Schools for Parents

PARENTS can no longer trust the proverbs of Solomon and "parental instinct" as adequate preparation for their job. Fathers and mothers need a working knowledge of modern theories of child hygiene, psychology and pedagogy if they are to do their fathering and mothering effectively. This increasingly widespread conviction is finding definite expression in a number of experiments in "parental education."

Wichita, Kansas, tried last year a local Opportunity School for parents which represented a successful piece of cooperation between the Board of Education and various groups such as the federated clubs, the Parent-Teachers Association, and the Y. W. C. A. (see The Survey, May 15, p. 260).

California is this fall undertaking a similar experiment on a larger scale as a further extension of its state-wide plan of adult education. (See The Survey, Nov. 15, 1925, p. 215.) Eight classes, four in a center in the north of the state and four in a center in Southern California are to be formed. In each group there will be one course offered for pre-school children, one for fathers of high school boys, one for mothers of children 6 to 12 years of age and one for mothers of high school girls. The classes will meet every two weeks for two hours, the time to be arranged by the class members.

The aim of these courses will be not only to help parents to do their job more intelligently, but also to bring home and school into closer cooperation.

Will C. Wood, state superintendent of public instruction, points out that:

> During the last quarter of a century certain responsibilities formerly borne by the American home have been shifted to the schools. There is a tendency to make the school more responsible than it has been heretofore for the development of character. There is need for greater emphasis on character education, but the schools cannot bear the whole burden. The schools have the pupils only about 1,000 hours out of the 8,760 hours of each year. Presumably the child is under the influence of the parent during the remaining 7,760 hours of each year. In consequence, there must be closer cooperation between the home and school in the problem of character education.
>
> I am impressed with the fact that in the handling of children many American homes are out of step with schools. Thirty years ago the rod was practically abolished as a means of discipline in the public schools. In consequence the schools were obliged to develop ideas of discipline based on character building. Discipline in the average American school today is far superior to the discipline which prevailed in the average American school during the reign of the rod. It is also superior to the discipline prevailing in the average American home.
>
> The average parent knows little more about methods of training children than did his great-grandparents. To harmonize the kind of training given in the home with leadership remaining in the home is the task of modern education envisaged in the new plan for the state of California. We shall enlist the cooperation of such agencies as the Smith Hughes Home Making staff, the Smith Lever home extension, University Extension, State Parent-Teacher organization and the organizations dealing with delinquent boys and girls.

A Parents Educational Center which now has seven branches has been in operation for several years under the direction of the Long Beach (California) Social Welfare Department. During 1924 the City Auditor's report shows that the Center made contacts with 2,324 parents, guardians and children. For 1925 they numbered 7,046. This year, according to G. Hardy Clark, M. D., director of the work, "they will run well over 10,000." The center instructs parents in the physical care of children and equally in the development of desirable character traits according to a scheme originated by Dr. Clark.*

Dr. Clark holds that "The training of children in citizenship should be done in their earliest years and in the home. . . . In the training the child must follow the trail of primitive man insofar as he must first, care for his own person and needs; second, contribute to the order and comfort of his home; and third, conform to his local system of community government."

During the past year the plan of the Educational Center, including periodic physical examination of children, "scoring" in physical and character traits and conferences with parents and children, was used as a pre-school course in the Temple Street School. During the coming year, this type of parent education will be extended in scope in the same school and will be continued in the Americanization classes in the adult Mexican Center.

College Insurgents

By PAUL BLANSHARD

THE widely advertised "revolt of youth" in our colleges is bearing fruit in a new attitude toward industrial justice on the part of an intelligent minority. The great majority of our college students are like their parents, bent on making good in the highest social class that they can clamber into. They reflect the philosophy of the hinterland. But a minority, fortunately the most brilliant minority, is questioning the prevailing Babbitesque outlook. The most encouraging development of recent years is the identification of the ablest students and the ablest younger professors with the insurgent group. Once the "radical" on our campus was "queer," socially an outsider. He still is, in many instances, but along with the queer ones and the foreign ones who think because they have no chance to fuss and athleticize, are an increasing number of college editors, debaters, Y. M. C. A. presidents and "big men" who deliberately forsake fussing and football for vital social inquiry.

What does this insurgent minority think about American capitalism, socialism, and the labor movement? Usually the opinion of the group is anti-capitalist without being intelligently pro-labor, that is to say, the ablest students on our campuses are pretty well convinced that capital has relatively too much power in the industrial system and that labor should somehow have more power, but there are few who have an intense loyalty to the labor movement. They are closer to Mencken than Moscow. Their attitude is cynical, inquiring, distrustful without loyalty to anything in particular. They have thrown overboard the old worship of economic laws as automatically creating social justice; they have no system to substitute. Their radicalism is a piece-meal radicalism, feeling its way. What has been lost in utopian ardor is often made up in scientific knowledge.

The usual vehicle for college radicalism is a discussion club. It is called a Liberal Club, a Round Table, a Student Forum or simply a chapter of the League for Industrial Democracy. The League has been most active in organizing these clubs but in many cases there is no con-

*A System of Character Training of Children, by G. Hardy Clark, M.D. Children's Health Laboratory, Long Beach, Calif.

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nection between the local group and the League except one of good will and advice. The local group aims to be a ferment on the campus, a challenge to undergraduate indifference about war, poverty and race prejudice. It brings in the most provocative speakers available. In the University of Minnesota a local group tried to bring in Scott Nearing and the request was refused, but they fought the issue in the press and produced a considerable off-campus audience for Dr. Nearing. At Ohio State University the Liberal Club, headed by a student who was also president of the Columbus carpenter's union, drew large audiences for discussion on compulsory military training. The year 1925-26 has seen the development of some sort of liberal club in almost every large American college. Frequently these clubs are short-lived but their death is rarely permanent. When one set of intellectual rebels graduates from college another set soon appears to lift the fallen banner.

The last college year has witnessed a further drift toward the left by the college Y. M. C. A. This institution is no longer made up chiefly of negatively "good boys." It has become a militant enemy of the current business psychology, the compulsory R. O. T. C. and the race-haters. Many a student Y. M. C. A. secretary has faced discharge for bringing speakers to the campus whom the college trustees denounce as agitators. The situation of the collegiate Y. M. C. A. is so critical that a complete break with the non-collegiate Y. M. C. A. is imminent. The break would be a logical one because the city Y. M. C. A. bears no more relation to the collegiate Y. M. C. A. than a Statler hotel bears to a college dormitory. If the break occurs, the students will be almost unanimously with the collegiate Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. type of militant social evangelism.

College representatives of the League are constantly complaining that when they graduate from college there is nothing to do with their convictions about industrial democracy. "The labor movement does not want me," said one college student "although I would gladly serve the movement in any capacity. The socialist movement is confined to a few cities and is badly divided; the Third Party movement shows few signs of life." The complaint is partly justified: America needs badly a counter-part of the British Labour Party if only as a receptacle for the pent-up industrial idealism of our colleges. But there is no need of waiting for such a group to be formed. The basic work of constructing such a unit will be largely in the hands of this college generation. In engineering, teaching, journalism and the pulpit there are tremendous opportunities to expose industrial wrong and advocate a constructive industrial program. In the college liberal clubs the speakers describe the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, the B. and O. Plan, Ramsay Macdonald, Sidney Webb, and Arthur Nash. The clubs are not primarily concerned in winning recruits for the labor movement. Their slogan, if they can be said to have one, is: Serve industrial democracy where you are.

PERHAPS the two student organizations that best represent the work of the League during the year are the Columbia Social Problems Club and the Vassar Chapter of the L. I. D.

The Columbia Social Problems Club with a membership of one hundred has brought to the campus a wide range of speakers on controversial subjects that have drawn audiences from one hundred to one thousand. Its most dramatic mass meeting was held in the spring when Passaic strike leaders and their followers presented to the students the cause of the Passaic strikers. Several hundred dollars were contributed by the audience toward the Passaic Relief Fund. In addition to large lecture meetings, there have been many discussion meetings on socialism, bolshevism, trade union tactics, and the defenses of modern capitalism.

The Vassar Chapter of the L. I. D. is a small but active ferment on the Vassar campus which includes seventy of the most active students and professors who use the organization as a center for discussion on economic and social problems. Goodly audiences usually turn out to hear out-of-town speakers but emphasis has been placed upon discussion under local leadership. A typical program of the Vassar group was the one last fall:

Oct. 17—Norman Thomas on What is Industrial Democracy? (attendance 200).

Nov. 1—Janet Murray and Helen Keples on Experiences in Industrial and Social Work During Summer (attendance 15).

Nov. 5—Paul Blanshard on What I Saw in Soviet Russia (attendance 70) and Around the World Steerage (attendance 700). (Before the Politics Club.)

Nov. 22—Miss Hutchinson on The Trade Union in Industrial Reform (attendance 40).

Dec. 14—Elizabeth Dougan and Adelaide Kelby on Nationalization (attendance 25).

A SECOND CONFERENCE, along the lines of the now famous Concerning Parents discussions of a year ago in New York city, is announced by the Child Study Association of America, Inc., to be held at the Belvedere Hotel, Baltimore, November 30 and December 1. The subject of this year's gathering will be Newer Ways With Children, from the mental hygiene and educational viewpoint. A number of demonstration classes will be held.

A VOCATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE, filled out by 1,590 high school girls of Oklahoma City, at the request of the local chapter of the American Association of University Women and the Young Women's Christian Association, indicates that the chief interests of modern girls are music and dancing, and next to them, stenography and acting. The questionnaire listed 137 occupations, on which girls were to check "all the things they would like to do." Aside from music with 676 votes and dancing with 520, it is interesting to note that 66 checked policewoman, 94 animal raising, 256 homemakers, 147 beauty operators. Only 9 per cent of this large group were not daughters of American-born parents. "The fathers were divided occupationally into business men, 62 per cent; laborers, 24 per cent; professional men, 14 per cent. Of the mothers, 11 per cent were working outside the home, engaged in 32 different occupations." Of the girls, 19 per cent had worked outside the homes, chiefly as salesgirls or nursemaids or in clerical positions. Forty-four per cent of the girls had decided on a vocation. Of these, 310 had chosen occupations in the business field, chiefly clerical. The next largest group (173) were planning to be teachers. The rest had scattered their choices among such diverse occupations as acting, millinery, medical missionary, architect, electrical engineer, lawyer, cartooning, poetry, floriculture, pianist. "'A study of the individual girls could be made," Katherine Woodruff, Y.W.C.A. Employment Director, points out, "to see how many have chosen their professions with a view to economic advancement rather than personal interest."

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Working Girls Talk It Out

By LUCY P. CARNER

"ONE of the things we have learned," a girl from a New England leather factory wrote of the Y.W.C.A. industrial conference she attended last summer, "is that workers' education is necessary to carry on our work of improving the industrial system now existing." Her daring, perhaps naive assumption does, in fact, underlie the program of the summer industrial conferences conducted by the Young Women's Christian Association. For that organization's interpretation of its spiritual purpose of "fullness of life" for young women workers in industry requires opportunity for them to analyze their own industrial experiences, to study ways of improving the "system," and to gain practice in group action through participation in the working out of their own educational program.

During the past summer, five industrial conferences under the auspices of the Y. W. C. A. were held in the United States—two in the Northeast, one in the South, and two in the Middle West. In addition, special programs for industrial girls were included in two of the general Y. W. C. A. community conferences. The total number of industrial girls in attendance was between eight and nine hundred, most of them factory workers, but also a growing and articulate group of girls in domestic service. Except in the South, colored as well as white girls make up these conferences, and always there is the variety of national backgrounds characteristic of the industrial population in this country as a whole.

The lecture hour, and the discussion groups—in some cases preceding and in others following the lecture—form the center of the educational program. The lecturer is likely to be a college professor, or a leader in the workers' education movement, an expert in whatever phase of industrial problems the committee of girls may have chosen for the subject of the conference in question. A. J. Muste, Phillips Bradley, Karl Bigelow, Edmund Chaffee, Elizabeth Brandeis Rauschenbusch, Albert Coyle, are among the lecturers of the last few years. In small discussion groups, under leaders who know something of everyday industrial life, girls relate the lecturer's data to their own experience, or bring out new problems to be taken up in later lectures. In these intimate groups much of the most vital education takes place. Here many a girl learns for the first time that the factory in which another girl works may be much better or much worse than her own; that another state has more advanced legislation than hers; that girls who belong to unions are not necessarily mere "kickers" (a conception of unionists carefully fostered in anti-union communities); that the reason that colored girls underbid is often because they can't get jobs otherwise; that somehow no one gets far toward "the good life" in industry by herself; that often well intentioned groups fail for lack of knowledge; that, finally, education may be a process of working things out together, a fascinating business of comparing experiences with other workers, and of learning from students something about how things came to be as they are.

BUT in a conference there are other ways than lecture and discussion, of presenting industrial questions and working out the problems of community life. Let me illustrate with some scattered pictures from different conferences.

The board of directors of the cooperative book shop is meeting to decide what recommendation shall be made to the cooperators regarding the distribution of dividends. The board has been elected by the shareholders, has learned the stock, watched sales, assisted the manager in advertising the books, taken turns in selling goods, and now is facing an important question of policy. In the course of the business of running a cooperative book-shop the whole conference, of course, has learned something about the cooperative movement and has seen the alternate possibilities of returning the dividends to the individual cooperators or of giving them toward some collective enterprise. It happens that this conference has been studying the situation back of a strike in an industry employing large numbers of women, in order to reply intelligently to an appeal for relief. The delegates have come to feel a sense of relationship to other industrial workers, whether they live in China or in the United States. It is natural, therefore, that the board should decide to recommend that the proceeds of the cooperative book-shop be given to the relief fund of the strike which the conference has been studying. It is equally natural that the cooperators should accept the board's recommendation, as an expression of the "unity in industry" they have come to feel.

One evening the stage is set for a legislative hearing, followed by a legislative session. Girls from several cities have been studying arguments for and against hour legislation for women, and the processes by which bills are presented to state legislatures. On the stage in the first scene sits a committee of the legislature, and the hearing takes place. In the next scene the audience forms the legislative body, with certain "legislators" prepared to make impromptu speeches from the floor. It is a gay occasion, for there is all the fun of dressing up (even to carrying the legislator's inevitable big cigar), of bringing out the familiar and ridiculous arguments of ignorant legislators and reactionary employers. But good hard work has gone into the speeches of the more intelligent opponents as well as into those of the proponents of the bill.

At the close of the "hearing" a woman member of one of the state legislatures speaks on the mechanism of getting bills passed and of the part voters may play as the real power behind their representatives in the legislature. It is evident that this lesson in citizenship, set against the background of the girls' own dramatic presentation, means some-

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thing more than a mere "address." For in the days that follow, girls pursue the woman legislator with questions, and many additional lessons to young voters are given to informal groups of three or four under a tree.

There is always one group particularly puzzled by discussions of industrial legislation, because it does not seem to apply to their problems—the girls in domestic service. So they meet in a group of their own to study a report of "The Problems of Domestic Work" prepared by a commission of domestic workers in advance of the conference. With this report as a background, they discuss the advantages of domestic work as compared to other work when conditions are right, common disadvantages, model schedules, methods being tried to make housework an occupation into which girls will want to go and stay, training courses, responsibility to the employer. The group brings a summary of its discussions before the conference as a whole, stating its belief that the Young Women's Christian Association can help in solving these problems and asking specifically "that this conference recognize the fact that girls employed in domestic work should be included in the workman's compensation, and assist in securing legislation that will include them." Thus a group of scattered individual workers emerges into the first stage of group consciousness and social action.

The program tonight is being planned by all the colored girls of the conference and by those who themselves—or whose parents—were born outside the United States. A girl in Polish peasant costume announces the numbers—folk dances, songs, a folktale, and explains something of the folk-life from which they grew. At the close comes the "surprise," and everyone is invited to the peasant's cottage into which one of the shack's had been transformed for tea, served from a Russian samovar.

The following Sunday morning the conference is gathered for morning worship. A liturgy is used made up of prayers and hymns from the religious literature of many nations. The closing hymn is the Negro National Anthem, sung by the choir while the whole conference stands. One of the young Negro poets reads and speaks quite simply of "poetry and life." The moods range from the Charleston to the tenderest lullaby; and from verse suggesting Carl Sandburg to the "blues." The experience has opened to girls a door into the meaning of poetry, and indirectly into an appreciation of the contribution of the Negro people.

THESE pictures may have served to illustrate the educational method of group participation and responsibility. The general program is planned jointly by a committee of girls and industrial secretaries. The program to a large extent grows out of local programs and problems, and aims, in turn, to enrich local work for the following year. Thus the conference is not an isolated event, but rather the focus of a year-round educational program.

The influence and leadership in these conferences of girls who have been to the Bryn Mawr Summer School, the Wisconsin Summer School, and Brookwood Labor College, is marked. On the other hand, many a girl has had awakened in an industrial conference an interest that led her eventually into one of these workers' schools. Thus industrial conferences are from these two aspects related to the wider field of workers' education. Whether technically they deserve the label of Workers Education is not the important point. They have a significance for that movement in so far as they form a connecting link with the industrial group that is hardest to reach—young girls for the most part unorganized.

Labor Looks At the British Crisis

By BEULAH AMIDON

THE solidarity of labor as a philosophical idea has drifted about among workers' organizations for a long time. A poll of the labor press on the present coal crisis in England (see The Survey, Sept. 1, p. 592) gives an interesting indication of how far this idea has worked itself into the actual thought and feeling of American labor. The labor press may not be a complete expression of what or how labor thinks. It is, however, the one articulate expression of labor opinion available to the general public.

In discussing the coal crisis there is a notable contrast between British and American labor papers. Even such radical English publications as The Sunday Worker are chiefly concerned with the political and economic aspects of the struggle. The Sunday Worker begins a recent strike story, "Financial interests which control the government have issued orders to the cabinet and the mine owners that the mining lockout must be ended, even if it means conceding the miners' demand." A small, one column head on an inside page asks, "Shall the Miners Starve?" In American labor papers it is the human tragedy of the situation that is most emphasized: "Children Starve in British Coal Fields"; "Scenes in the Life of the British Mine Worker." This difference in emphasis may be due to the fact that comment on the British situation in this country has for some weeks been mainly "tied" to the appeal of the British trade union delegation for relief funds to enable the strikers to carry on. It may, on the other hand, be an expression of the sentimentality in which we swaddle so much of our discussion of public questions.

Labor, the weekly Washington newspaper of the Associated Recognized Standard Railroad Labor Organizations, has carried frequent news stories of the progress of the British strike cabled by its foreign correspondent, Heber Blankenhorn. These despatches have interpreted as well as described the coal crisis more and more in terms of human suffering. "This desperate battle has entered its decisive phase and the Congress (fifty-eighth Trade Union Congress at Bournemouth) is trying hard to avoid controversial subjects and stick to ways and means of helping the miners."

The American Federation of Labor has through its officials led in the attempt to raise funds for British miners in this country. In their appeals for support from locals and from affiliated organizations, A. F. of L. leaders have repeatedly stressed the oneness of labor in all countries. In an appeal sent out from the Washington headquarters of the organization and widely quoted in the labor press, it is pointed out that "the British miners . . . are heroically fighting against a lowering of their living standards. The action of the mine owners in attempting to force this reduction is a challenge to organized workers everywhere." The American Federationist underscores this editorially:

> Theirs [the British miners'] is a cause that makes a strong personal appeal. These miners daily risk their lives in difficult physical toil in order to supply homes and industries with a basic commodity upon which other activities are dependent. The American miners have made generous response and the general labor movement realizes the need of helping to maintain standards for workers of all nations.

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The same point of view is expressed in Labor Age (cooperatively owned and published by a group of international, state and local unions). "Meanwhile the Miners fight on. Their cause is the cause of the workers throughout the world, their defeat will be felt in every land." On the same page, Labor Age devotes ten times the amount of space given to the "international character of the fight" to an appeal to "Help the British Miners" based on "a pathetic incident of the coal strike" quoted from the New York Herald-Tribune as an "example of what they are undergoing for their cause."

The United Mine Workers' Journal, the organ of the American group which is probably closest in interest and understanding to the British strikers, has had little discussion of the fundamentals of the British situation, though it has given much space to a series of "Scenes in the Life of the British Mine Worker," with such captions as "A Buddy on the Pathway Sharing the Week's Wages With His Men" and to human interest appeals: "British Miners Tighten Their Belts and Stand Fast" and "Only 475 Out of 1,000,000 Locked Out British Miners Have Returned To Work In the Mines."

The Advance (Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America) feels that "the present miners' strike in England, as well as last winter's strike in this country, have again demonstrated the lack of realness in what we describe as international labor solidarity." It fears that "the lowering of labor standards in Great Britain would tend to lower labor standards in other European countries and thus defeat labor all around," and warns its readers that "American labor cannot possibly shut its eyes to the dangers that are inherent in such an outlook," adding, "Every dollar given the British miners is a contribution toward the upholding of labor standards everywhere."

In the current issue of The Locomotive Engineers Journal, "Aid for the British Miners," an appeal by L. G. Griffing, Acting President of the organization, is given a prominent place. After quoting examples of courage and suffering on the part of the miners, it concludes, "The labor movements of France, Belgium, Germany, Russia and other European countries are contributing with equal generosity. . . . I am confident that the workers of America and the members of this Brotherhood in particular, will be equally responsive to the dictates of our common humanity and the fraternal bond that unites us with our brother workers in all lands."

One Big Union Bulletin (Winnipeg Central Labor Council of the O. B. U.) points out that "the government is cutting down on the 'poor relief,' hoping to starve the miners into submission" and asks heatedly, "Can we stand by and see the front line trenches of Labor's army destroyed by this method? We hardly think so!"

Several particularly pungent first hand accounts of the British situation, for example Merrie England Becomes Merrie Hell by Heber Blankenhorn, have been widely reprinted by labor papers which cannot themselves send representatives into the field.

The Journal of Electrical Workers and Operators, one of the most intelligently edited of the American labor papers, sees that the British crisis "is a time when hatreds destined to last a century are born. The British Premier who walks out of England to go to a fashionable summer resort; the lord or bishop who clips mine stock coupons; the scab workmen, are piling up a harvest of hate in England. No miner who sees the wan face and cowed eyes of his hungry child is going to forget this hour of agony and those responsible for it." The editorial concludes with a sharp warning, based on the sense of the inter-dependence of all labor: "An American workman should remember his British brother in this crisis, lest the American, too, may sow hatred and sacrifice friendship, during the British miners' trial by fire."

Among papers which advocate some special formula for the solution of the industrial problem, the British strike is used as a text for propaganda sermons. Thus The Workers Monthly (Workers Communist Party of America) draws "the lessons of the British general strike" and indicates "the immediate tasks of the British Communist Party." First among these it lists "the most energetic support for the miners on strike." The other twenty-two "tasks" are a program of Communist Party activity. Similarly Cooperation (The Cooperative League) is chiefly interested in asking, "British Coal: How About Cooperation?"

In polling the American labor press on the subject of the British situation, one notable fact stands out: whether on the principle of the "solidarity of labor" or on purely humanitarian grounds, the editorial spokesmen of the labor movement in this country are unanimously convinced that American workers must "rally to the British miners."

Leipsic's Labor College

BY ANNA L. CURTIS

THE new Socialism must build upon the central idea that in working for others you complete yourself. All our teaching here has this as its leading thought."

Walter Hartig, head of the Labor College in Leipsic, pushed his soup-plate away, and bent forward to emphasize his words with both thin hands. His lean, rather fanatical face glowed as he went on:

"We have to rebuild all society. No community can be lasting that is not built on the idea of mutual service. Before the war, Force, not to say Brute Force, was the watchword of the German government, and the working classes were considered the enemies of the government. It feared them, much as the Bolshevists are feared today. The people, the vast majority of whom had left school at fourteen, wanted more education. But the government either suppressed this desire for adult education, or turned it to its own ends.

"Now, this workers' school, and the people's colleges, which are springing up all over Germany, are trying to make human beings from laborers. Our laboring men must learn to take part in the direction of government and of industry; but at the same time, the Workers' Education Movement wants to give them an appreciation of the cultural side of life."

The dining-room where we were eating, in the great Leipsic *Volks-Haus,* bore out his words. It was a pleasant, airy room, with a tasteful mural decoration, and chairs harmonizing with this in tone. White cloths were on the tables, and each diner had a paper napkin, but the prices were bare-table and no-napkin prices. There was little smoking in the room, and even less drinking. Indeed, according to my companion, the Laborers' Abstinence Association of Leipsic is trying to do away entirely with the serving of liquor on the premises.

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The first Peoples' House in Leipsic was built in the years following 1904, but was set afire by monarchist reactionaries in 1920, and destroyed. Against the greatest difficulties of poverty and inflation, the new building has slowly risen. It is a fine structure in the midst of a dreary tenement district—Leipsic leads in dreariness—and is the pride of the workers whose *pfennige* have helped to build it. On the first floor is the restaurant, "one of the largest and most beautiful in Leipsic," declares the leaflet which describes the building. On the fifth floor, and reached by two elevators—a noteworthy item in Germany—is a small hotel with sixty beds. In the rear, a bakery and laundry belonging to the building make it possible to run restaurant and hotel at the lowest rates.

Various labor organizations of Leipsic have their centers here. There is a library, for adults and children, a large auditorium, conference-rooms, many class-rooms, and office-rooms of every kind. The Leipsic "People's Daily" is published from the People's House. The International Association of War Injured has an office here, as has also the Laborers' Abstinence Association, and the Union of Proletarian Free-thinkers. The entire institution is the result of the joint efforts of the labor unions and the Social Democratic political party.

Next door to the restaurant is one of the cooperative grocery-stores of the association. There are eighty of them in Leipsic. Only members of the organization may buy from these stores, but to them the saving is very considerable. Mr. Hartig's chief interest, of course, is in the educational features. "But it all belongs together," he said.

This is one of the material ways in which the great Leipsic labor organization which centers in the People's House helps its members. But the Workers' Educational Institute, *Arbeiter Bildung-Institut,* is trying to help them, physically, mentally, and spiritually. Physically, through gymnastic classes and through courses in hygiene and physiology; mentally, through its lecture courses in economics, history, labor problems and the like; spiritually, through its course in Esperanto studied as an agent for peace—a common language, and the opportunities which it gives for culture, for the higher appreciation of music, art, drama, and literature.

LEIPSIC is among the foremost German cities in providing educational facilities for adults. The People's House rose before the Revolution; but in 1919, the City Council, "in consideration of the fact that the new epoch has ripened the desire for further education and culture in wide circles of the people," decided to establish a municipal bureau, which should foster all efforts for adult education.

At the present time, this bureau is directing a *Volkshochschule,* or People's College; a School for Industry and Management; a People's College Home, which is designed to give young student-laborers the same close association as that of young men in our own college dormitories; a People's Education annex to the University of Leipsic, taught largely by the university professors; and the *Kinderland,* or Childland movement, which tries to give children a deeper, truer education than that of the schools. The People's House is independent of this Bureau, although cooperating with the educational activities of the city.

Leipsic claims to stand alone in this program for popular education of adults. Trade unions and political parties in other cities have committees on education which are carrying on more or less work. And there are many *Volkshochschulen* in the country, although it is impossible to be exact. Saxony alone claims eighty or ninety. New ones are frequently formed by ambitious groups who start with one course, and one lecturer, in the hope of adding other courses and students. Sometimes their hopes are wonderfully justified; sometimes the "school" falls to pieces over night. Of the entire number, there are possibly eight or ten, as those in Jena and Cassel, which may be mentioned in the same breath with the Leipsic *Volkshochschule,* which has 2,500 students, nearly half of whom are actually of the "proletariat."

And the Workmen's Educational Institute of Leipsic stands alone; there is nothing else of the kind in Germany.

"Our peculiarity is that we emphasize both knowledge and art. The education and broader development of the laboring class has been a burning problem for a long time. But it is especially so, now, since the Revolution has given the working people a direct and positive share in the government, and also, according to the law, a definite influence in the direction of industry. So we give courses in the history of industry, factory management, the structure of European industry, the development of society, problems of Socialism, European problems of races and nations, and the like."

"What about the ordinary branches, and the definite teaching of science and such things?" Mr. Hartig was asked.

"Those may be studied at the *Volkshochschule* (People's College) whose curriculum is much more general. This gives courses in many subjects which people desire to study, and so attracts students of many classes—clerks, servant-girls, small shop-keepers, even civil officials, as well as laborers. The Workers' Institute reaches out to *laborers,* skilled and unskilled, to educate them to take part in directing the fortunes of their country and its industry. It is a true expression of the Workers' Movement.

"The Workers' Movement in Germany," he continued, "has always wished to give the people a knowledge not not only of industry, but of the other things that make up life. It is fostering chorus singing for children, young people, and adults. It puts symphony concerts within the reach of its members. It brings grand opera to them, at a price of one, two, or three marks, instead of five or six times as much. It tries, too, to cultivate eyes as well as ears. Lectures on the art and other collections in the city museums are given weekly in the museums by competent instructors, for students of the Institute. Excursions to nearby spots of beauty or geological interest are taken as a means of building up their love of nature. The drama is not neglected; those who wish may take part in the presentation of plays, and a people's stage is developing.

"You see," said the enthusiast, "we are trying to develop the complete man. We are trying to build, from the spirit of class-conscious labor, a new type of civilization, a civilization of brotherhood in the community, and of true humanity. That is our goal."

We stepped out to the sidewalk, and looked up at the great, gray building, with its arched doorways and windows. From the dome high overhead there floated a blood-red flag, symbol to Walter Hartig of the common blood of humanity, of the "civilization of brotherhood," which he is struggling to help build.

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HEALTH

Mental Hygiene in a Nursing Service

By GRACE ALLEN

SO far the field of mental hygiene has been mainly the province of the psychiatric social workers and the visiting teachers. Recently public health organizations have discussed widening its usefulness through the aid of public health nurses. A few nursing organizations have gone so far as to add a mental hygiene service, hoping thereby to help their staff nurses better to understand and so better to serve the families with whom they were working. Among these is the East Harlem Nursing and Health Demonstration whose experience for the past year in this field forms the basis of the present article.

The East Harlem Nursing and Health Demonstration was organized in 1923 to give nursing supervision to an Italian population of about 40,000 in twenty blocks in the upper east side of New York city. Its area is divided into ten districts, each with a staff nurse. The service is generalized, with special supervisors.

The mental hygiene program was added in response to two needs: to help the nurses to obtain a more complete understanding of the patient from the mental as well as physical viewpoint; and to make mental hygiene more accessible to the neighborhood. Before the establishment of the clinic unit, consisting of a psychiatrist, psychologist, and mental hygiene supervisor, patients were referred to various clinics in the city, a procedure which was sometimes difficult, particularly in the case of children who had to be accompanied by members of the family. In inaugurating the mental hygiene clinic the following objectives were outlined:

To determine whether the public health nurse with her other services can carry the mental hygiene work.

To determine what additional preparation, if any, the public health nurse needs to do adequate follow-up work with mental hygiene cases.

To obtain a more definite knowledge of the mental side of the individual with whom the nurse is working, in order to consider the *whole* patient.

To discover whether the nurse through her intimate family contacts will be able to locate the behavior, emotional and mental problems in the families with whom she is working and thus arrange a more adequate program.

The cases are selected by the staff nurse, and the problem is outlined. A social history is secured and this and the findings of the physical and psychological examination are read by the psychiatrist before the patient is seen. If time permits and unless there is a reason against it, the staff nurse is present at the interview, which is a friendly informal talk about the problem. If the nurse is an old friend this works out very well. An analysis of contributing factors is believed to be invaluable to the worker in showing the complexity of the problem.

The work is limited only by the demonstration area; the patients are of all ages, though school children predominate. As might be expected in a new undertaking, many are easily recognized cases of feeble-mindedness, with resulting behavior problems, though among our behavior problems are children with a high intelligence quotient. A few adults are psychotic, and a small percentage of children and adults are epileptic or in need of endocrine therapy. By far the majority are children of pre-school and school age who are just "bad." The physician in the Demonstration's pre-school clinic keeps her eye open for children whose mothers say they "can't do a thing with them," and the nurse making home visits is on the lookout for small persons who are "manipulating the environment" to the satisfaction of themselves and to the great discomfort of everyone else.

The other day, for example, a nurse visited a home in which no English was spoken, and seeking an interpreter went to a neighboring flat where a pleasant Italian woman translated. A five-year-old boy was running about the room, chasing his pet kid. Every time he caught the little animal he twisted its leg until it whimpered with pain. Finally it escaped under the bed, and the boy began to circle about the visitor to see what amusement he could get out of her. He refused to make friends but watched her appraisingly as she and his mother continued talking. After finishing her errand, the nurse asked the mother if she had brought Tony, her little boy, to the Demonstration clinic for an examination—he was a frail little fellow. Tony's mother had not. She said that he was a very strong child and she took such good care of him that she never let him go out on the street and play with other children. He had all the fun he needed at home, or when he went out with her. He even had a pet goat. By this time Tony was in pursuit of the animal again, and the nurse urging the mother to bring him to the clinic where he would

Five years ago "mental hygiene" was a term to be defined, to be interpreted, even to health and social workers. Now the question is not "What is it?", but "How shall we get it?" The three articles which head this department describe three New York experiments in establishing a mental hygiene service as a neighborhood resource, available for the prevention as well as the cure of maladies of the spirit, and above all, for aid in understanding the warning symptoms of mental disorder at the beginning when friendly understanding and intelligent help may make it possible to avoid an irreparable breakdown.

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see other children his age, rose to go. Her gloves were missing. She suggested that perhaps Tony was playing with them but the child, who had not spoken until then, declared violently that he had not and emphasized his remark by kicking his mother. The mother agreed with him that it was impossible, and the nurse left. A little later she was overtaken by an older boy from the flat below who had seen Tony throw the gloves from the window and had found them in the courtyard. Poor Tony was bored and had to find his own amusement! But what an outlook for his mother when her other two children reach the goat-twisting, parent-kicking age. The staff nurse feels it her duty to get Tony and his mother in to the mental hygiene clinic, and until then to keep an eye on the family, including the goat.

DOWN the colorful, crowded street lives Dominick with his two brothers, his mother and father. A black hallway leads to their flat, which has too little sun, too little air, too little everything. Dominick does not stay there more than he can help. His father is a fierce, disappointed man, realizing his inferiority to his wife, of whom he is suspicious and jealous. So he asserts his physical superiority and beats her and frightens the children. Dominick's mother wishes him and the other children to "know more than their father"; Dominick's father hears her taunt and resents it. But Dominick is kept back in school, time and again, and plays truant while his mother weeps and his father mocks. The home has an extra terror for the boy because an uncle with whom he slept committed suicide one night in the same room in which Dominick still sleeps, and when the curtain moves he knows it is his uncle's ghost coming back, because the house was not blessed to take away the curse of the awful deed.

Of course Dominick plays truant. The streets offer the same freedom to a child with an intelligence quotient of 60 that they offer to anyone else, and big boys let him do errands. The big boys sometimes "rob money," but Dominick does not like this and runs away from the gang and plays alone. He is a frail, unhappy little boy. But his mother loves him and his father's mood will be less disturbed if she understands the probable reason for his severity with her and with the children, and does not taunt him with lack of learning. She has always realized that he is a good man in some ways, but has never forgiven him for assuming an American name when he married her—he was ashamed to be a poor Italian—for his people in Italy are good stock. We hope that he will come in to talk over the problem of the boy, but so far he hasn't seen the use of it. Dominick is the type of boy that might easily become a "gun carrier" for a gang. To overcome his truancy both parents must help, the home must be pleasanter, and he must have encouragement from his teacher. He needs the activities of a boys' club and he should have good food and sleep and a summer vacation in the country.

A VISIT to a family in behalf of one patient frequently results, as every social worker knows, in finding other members in need of care of some sort. That is how we found Orlando Cappuchio, a boy who within the space of four months was our greatest problem and later our greatest cause for gratification. He pulled out of his hole so rapidly that the people working with him scarcely feel that they have the right to congratulate themselves upon the result of their guidance, but rather extend to Orlando felicitations upon his own enterprise and good luck.

The first introduction to Orlando came by way of a visit to the home in behalf of a younger sister who had ceased attending school. She was a tubercular suspect. At present she is at a camp having a good time and getting better. On this first visit the staff nurse noticed Orlando, apparently about twelve years old, sitting dejectedly in the house, showing no interest in what went on around him. She asked him why he did not go to school and was surprised when he said that he was over sixteen. To her suggestion that it was a lovely day and that he should be out, he said that he was too weak to do anything except go to the dispensary to have his arm dressed, and he showed her the bandages. His depressed mood, and the indescribable something that every worker recognizes so surely that she does not take time at the moment to analyze it, made her decide that he was in need of mental as well as physical hygiene. She telephoned to the hospital at which his injured arm was being dressed and learned that the case was an old osteomyelitis and that another operation would shortly be necessary.

Orlando was appealing. His slight build and his deformed arm, his big brown eyes, and a very gentle manner touched one's sympathies. He was willing to do whatever was suggested by the staff nurse. He came to the mental hygiene clinic and in his civil and detached manner told of his illness. The records show the interrelation of nurse, psychiatrist, and situation.

Boy is undersized, undernourished and pale, left forearm is deformed and presents scars of surgical incision and one large discharging sinus. There is a history of osteomyelitis in the left forearm, duration about one year, ten months in Hospital. At present he is being treated three times a week.

He is well dressed, clean, courteous, cooperative; he is a rather gentle, easy going youth, habits are good according to his own account. He is definitely slowed up in action, speech and thinking. He says he is despondent and discouraged. He is preoccupied intensely with the arm condition. He quit school because of it and has focussed upon it to the exclusion practically of all other interests. He feels that he has changed very much. He used to have many friends in Buffalo and go out every night, but since the family moved to New York one year ago, he has made no friends. He says the whole family has had bad luck since coming to New York. The father was taken sick, was ill six months, and the A.I.C.P. contributed to the support of the family. The sister was taken from school because of suspected tuberculosis; the mother has cardiac condition. The patient feels the necessity to contribute but is unable to because he is cut out of manual labor because of the arm condition still unhealed. He has been told by doctors that he will be crippled to a certain extent at best when healed; he is not trained for other work. There is sleeping difficulty—he often wakes at 3 A. M. Appetite is poor, he has no interest in food. There are no suicidal trends. I. Q. 53.

Impression: Reactive depression. Physical factors: Osteomyelitis, left forearm. Undernourished. Social factors: In the past a series of illnesses and economic failure in the family. Final judgment as to mental status (performance tests) is suspended in view of probable emotional retardation.

Recommendations: Further investigation of economic situation with advice as to feeding, tonics, and general hygiene of patient. Investigate school record, make contacts with boys' organizations for recreational purposes. Occupational therapy? Bolstering therapeutic talks.

The next day the staff nurse made a home visit:

Visited home and found Orlando alone. He complained of dizziness, headache and nausea. Temperature, pulse and re-

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spiration normal. Boy said he had eaten no breakfast, and that he never left the house except to attend clinics. He used to read stories, take walks, play with other boys while in Buffalo but at present has no occupations except taking care of his arm. January 23 he was told by the physician at the dispensary that another operation is necessary, to remove from the arm a fragment of bone. This physician told Orlando not to worry, that he would get well, but the boy fears that the next operation may be to amputate his arm. Nurse assured him that this is not so and urged him to do his part in his cure by eating and exercising as well as by going to the dispensary. He showed no interest in his recovery, having resigned himself to invalidism. He was animated in recounting his pleasures in Buffalo, which included staying up until midnight in the office of a friend of his who was an undertaker, and assisting him. Asked how he assisted, he said by staying in the front office. The flat has four rooms, a kitchen with two windows and necessary equipment, bedroom joining it with one window on a court; another similar bedroom, and a front room with two windows. The bedrooms each have a large double bed, and in one is a cot for Orlando and a crucifix. He is kept awake by his sister who coughs. The beds were sufficiently supplied with bedding, had sheets and were only slightly disordered. The front room has a piano, victrola, many framed family photographs, and several water colors, the work of Mr. Cappuchio, Orlando said, who at present is employed by a picture framing company. All the rooms were immaculately clean, but unventilated. Heat from a coal stove in the kitchen. Family has a pet dog which frisked around but did not interest the boy. He thanked nurse for the visit and promised to come tomorrow to the mental hygiene clinic.

Encouraged by the therapeutic talks Orlando made an excellent recovery from the operation. His spirits were bolstered up by the reassurances of his physician at the hospital and by the staff nurse, who kept in touch with the family and tried to make them realize that Orlando must not be allowed to think that he would be an invalid and unable to earn like other boys. One day he went down to an agency and got a job. And it wasn't merely a job . . . it was a job with a *uniform!*

AT the request of a welfare organization the staff nurse went to see the Di Santi's and unearthed a situation that baffled her. In the dirty, disordered, three-room flat were three of the five older children, naked except for little shirts. A baby lay neglected in its bed with a cold, dirty bottle of milk beside it. The mother, a fragile, pretty thing, was apparently speechless with fright when the nurse knocked at the door, and stood, barring the way, her pallid face and staring eyes framed by a mat of loose black hair. Mrs. Di Santi fixes her gaze upon the caller and there it remains until the person moves out of range. The neighbors call her "crazy" and this angers her husband, who fears that she will be sent away and that their home will be broken up. The flat is forlorn, sparsely furnished, with no attempt at decoration, no pets, nothing but a silent staring woman, six unkempt children and a father crippled by an injury, for which he receives some compensation. He has served a prison sentence; he is bitter over his misfortunes and ready to get even with society if his wife should be declared "crazy" and taken away from him. Indeed, for a while he was the greater problem of the two. But it has turned out well. Three of the children have been sent to relatives; Mrs. Di Santi's illness was diagnosed by the psychiatrist as post-encephalitis and not dementia praecox. She probably will grow no worse and can remain at home and do easy housework. Her husband expressed his faith in our work by becoming a pillar of the Fathers' Club!

The mental hygiene service of the East Harlem Nursing and Health Demonstration has been in existence too short a time to make it possible to draw definite conclusions and base policies and recommendations upon them. But we can say, on the basis of our limited experience, that we believe that mental hygiene service is necessary as an integral part of a generalized nursing service in a large city, to enable the nurses to consider the patients from the psychological as well as the physical standpoint, to help them to understand home conditions and better to approach the problems of health teaching; and also, from the point of view of the patients, to make mental hygiene accessible without the long, time-consuming trips to hospital clinics and other centers. While we cannot yet pass in detail upon the four objectives which were outlined when the service was inaugurated, we can say that we believe that under supervision public health nurses in a generalized service can work in the special field of mental hygiene with the same success which has followed their work in other special fields.

Two New York Experiments in Community Mental Hygiene

I. At Hudson Guild

By MARION E. PALMER

AT a recent workers' meeting at the Hudson Guild when there was a pause to take account of stock, looking back over thirty years and ahead to the new problems, the aim of community work was formulated as "the giving of a wider vista on life through the enlargement of the individual's scope of activities." In the extent to which this aim has been realized there is reason for just pride, but the consideration of future plans brings with it the desire to see why aims have fallen short and how they may be more fully realized. A study of neighborhood work from within and from without reveals two basic reasons for the fact that it is sometimes impossible even to enlarge the scope of an individual's activity, to say nothing of helping him to greater fullness of life. The first of these is the incomplete understanding which we have, as yet, of the personality forces of the individual, of the problems within himself from which his energy must be released before it can go out to new interests effecting any vital change in his life. The second is the fact that it sometimes is too late to offer a wider scope of activities when the personality mold, with its fixed habits and attitudes, has become set. If, in childhood, there had been a diversion into other channels of the energy which now goes into quarrelsomeness and the tendency to sharp-tongued remarks that make for failures to get along in the club activities or family life, the individual would have played a different part in group life and his benefit from it would have been correspondingly greater. To be truly effective socialization must come early and be bred in the bone.

Granted that in the make-up of the individual lies the obstacle to the development of a fine and hardy community spirit bringing the widening of individual horizons, the question arises of how these personality difficulties are to be solved, to make open the way for socializing influences. The spirit of community work is to approach this problem through constructive and preventive rather than remedial measures but there is a handicap to instituting genuinely preventive measures in the failure to recognize at an early stage in an individual's career that certain behavior manifestations, cer-

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tain attitudes and habits are unhealthy and will keep him from developing to the extent of his potentialities. If a child gets along from day to day with a certain amount of gaiety, of crying, of temper and of willfulness, there is a tendency to believe that there is no need to worry about him and that it is only the children who play truant, who steal or beat the baby over the head, who need special consideration. The danger signal is often not seen in the failure to get along with other children, in over-sensitiveness and infantilism of various kinds.

For the recognition of these danger signals, two things are necessary: a knowledge of mental hygiene principles and an intimate acquaintance with the child and with his home setting. In a busy settlement there are many obstacles in the way of knowing well the hundreds of children and adolescents who flock to the clubs and other activities—lack of time, preoccupation with the group as a whole, the habitual meeting of children in a setting not conducive to confidences. To know the half of the child which is found in himself is difficult, but to know that even more important half which lies in the home life, is possible only in a comparatively few cases. In the majority of cases the visits made to the homes are friendly, social affairs, giving only a surface picture of conditions. Even where there is an intimate relationship between the worker and the family, the worker does not generally have the necessary knowledge of hereditary and development factors to get to the root of the child's present difficulty, nor does she have the diagnostic equipment to define the situation.

IN conformance with the trend of the times to specialize, the Guild felt that, for the recognition of danger signals, for the understanding of the personality problems which is necessary for constructive work, and for the treatment of particularly difficult cases, a new mental hygiene department was needed. It was thus that the Advisory Bureau came into existence. As yet it does not come under the general settlement budget, but is entirely financed by a private individual who is desirous of extending both the field of mental hygiene and the work of the settlement. No fees are charged. The staff consists of a psychiatrist, Dr. Stephen P. Jewett, a psychologist and a psychiatric social worker. To the Bureau are brought children or adults who present problems on which the workers feel the need of advice. Although the majority of cases referred have been children, in many instances it is the parents rather than the children who present the maladjustment problem. The adolescent case is in the minority, apparently because it is more difficult to get across to them the idea that a psychiatrist could help them in their personality difficulties and to disabuse their minds of the feeling that consulting a psychiatrist would throw a stigma on their mental condition. Of course many of the difficulties for which patients are referred, are of an overt nature—failure to get along at school or at work, temper tantrums, alcoholism, stealing—but gradually the realization has come that the shy, sensitive child and the unhappy married couple are also in need of help.

The routine of the Bureau is like that of most mental hygiene clinics; after a detailed psychiatric history is secured, a psychological, psychiatric, and neurological examination are given, the medical examination being made by the regular medical clinic of the Guild. The community house setting offers an advantage in its naturalness and freedom from the ordinary congested official clinic atmosphere. The people tend to come in something of the same spirit as they come to other activities in the house, making a sociable time of it. One small patient rushed in, with three other girls in tow, saying, "Doctor—these girls want to join too. Can't they come and talk to you?"

The method of treatment varies. Sometimes the difficulty is comparatively slight; a psychological examination may show that a school problem is based on the boredom which follows on inadequate stimulus for an active intellect; a school readjustment is made through consultation with the teacher, through an enlargement of outside activities or through removal to another school, and the difficulty is largely solved. Much more frequently the difficulties are not as simple as these. It may be necessary for the psychiatrist to see the child over a period of time. In some cases the club leader or worker by whom the child was referred to the Bureau carries on treatment under the advice of the psychiatrist, but there are other cases where the difficulty is so deep-seated in home conditions that it requires the services of a worker with a special technique and with all her time free for case work. All the varied facilities which the Guild has to offer are drawn upon in treatment, not only for the individual in question but for his whole family and the workers directing these activities play a vital part in the treatment. A settlement clinic finds at its hands resources for the socialization of the whole family with which no other type of clinic is equipped. The close interconnection between the Advisory Board and the other departments is of the greatest service in this respect. Although the cases have been carried only over a few months, thanks to the quick response of childhood it is already possible in many instances to see the effects of treatment—shy, shut-in youngsters learning to mix with other children, to stand on their own and to experience the joyousness which is their due; restless, hair-brained boys finding legitimate outlets for their energy, and, encouraged by the new understanding which their parents show, fitting into home and school.

As a means of keeping a close touch between the Bureau and the other workers, there are discussion meetings once a month at which cases are presented with an analysis of causative factors and methods of treatment, and at which general neighborhood problems are discussed. These meetings serve to bring to the staff of the Bureau, fuller knowledge of neighborhood conditions, of resources which can be utilized and of the community approach to the solution of social maladjustment. To the house staff they bring a deeper insight into the psychiatric approach and a mental hygiene point of view toward their work as a whole.

THE Bureau is young; it will take time to put it on such an intimate footing with the neighborhood as a whole that it will not be viewed as clinics are apt to be, as something remote, official—the consulting of which is a portentous affair, but will be considered a place to drop in for advice as informally as is done in other departments of the Guild. Before this day will come there will have to be a broader recognition in the neighborhood of the help which a mental hygiene clinic can give and of the difficulties for which its help is needed. This recognition must come mainly through the sentiment which the workers are able to build up. The roots of a mental hygiene clinic lie in the settlement and only through the interest and cooperation of the workers can it be nourished and reach its full potentialities for service in the community.

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II. At Greenwich House

By MARY KINGSBURY SIMKHOVITCH

THE distinctive feature of the Community Guidance Clinic in Greenwich House is that it is not under our Health Center at all but under the direct management of the Greenwich Neighborhood Association, a local group independent of the House. Mrs. Charles Rumsey's gift, which assured the Clinic, was made with the direct understanding that it would be a neighbors' affair. The chief purpose that this clinic subserves, therefore, is to bring teachers and parents, through practical, local experience, to understand the problems of child life and family well-being.

Under Dr. Sanger Brown's direction, with a physician for physical examinations and a psychologist, a psychiatric social worker and a secretary, this clinic aims primarily to educate the community and to that end is engaged in the practical care of as many patients as can be handled by this staff.

The neighbors are being awakened to the possibilities this clinic discloses and are beginning to realize the responsibilities for reconstructive effort. While it is not intended wholly for children, the emphasis is placed upon their needs, as the habit-formative period is the most important.

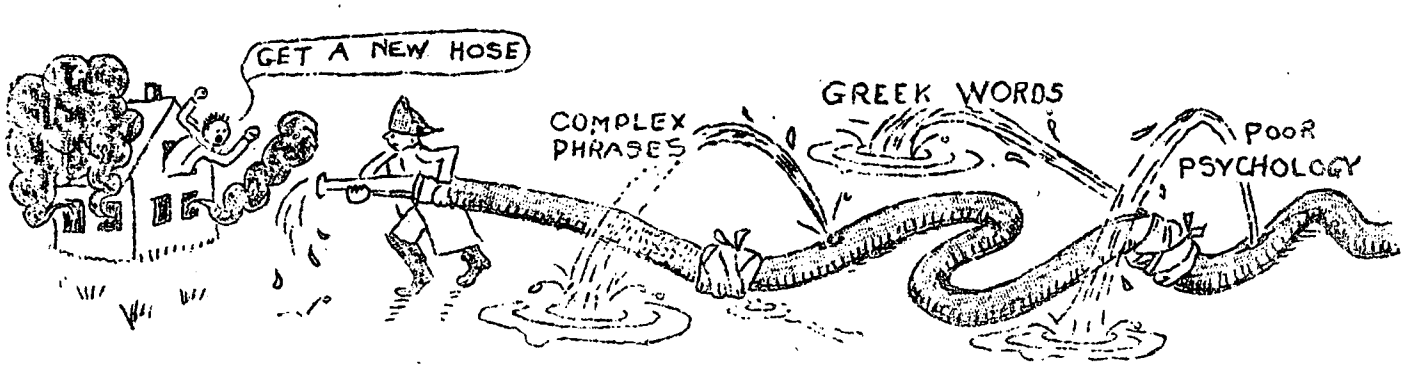
In the follow-up social service work, which is such an important phase in the treatment of the cases of problem-children, the psychiatric worker in the community house has a great advantage in having the recreational and occupational facilities of the house readily accessible. Proper recreation and congenial occupation are two very important factors in the adjustment of the problem-child, for they need opportunities for self-expression and growth along desirable and natural lines. At Greenwich House, for example, are drawing and dancing classes, children's dramatics, pottery and woodcarving shops, the gymnasium, various kinds of clubs for both boys and girls.

To the community house, the main advantage of a mental hygiene clinic is that, through the psychiatric analysis of children that are considered "problems," the settlement workers may be given a closer understanding of the causes that underlie the children's actions, and therefore, be better able to overcome or minimize their difficulties. They should be assisted, too, in selecting for their especially difficult young charges, the activities and recreations that are best suited to their individual capabilities.

THE EFFECT on public health in Cleveland of the northward migration of Negroes in which that city has shared has recently been made the subject of study by Dr. H. L. Rockwood, the commissioner of health. In the past decade the Negro population of Cleveland has increased four-fold, after twenty years at a stationary level. During the past ten years the deathrate among Negroes has remained constant at 20 per 100,000 while the white deathrate has declined from 13.5 to 9.6, or to less than half that of the colored population. The much greater prevalence of tuberculosis among Negroes than among whites brings an increased hazard to the whole city with their growth in numbers; and the high Negro deathrates for acute respiratory diseases (such as pneumonia) probably reflect in part the change from the climatic conditions of the South to the North, though overcrowding and poverty are other important factors. With the migration has come an increase in the Negro deathrates from external violence, and from the diseases incidental to child-bearing, both of which are much higher among the colored than among the white population. "The obvious result of Negro migration," Dr. Rockwood declares, "has emphasized the need for increased efforts on the part of all health agencies to lower the unnecessarily high mortality among the colored population."

FROM 8 to 10 per cent of the applicants for employment in industrial plants will be found by physical examination to be under par, and to need careful placement, while from 2 to 5 per cent have to be rejected either for their own safety or that of others, according to the pamphlet, Physical Examinations in Industry, recently published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company as the second of an industrial health series. The forms and technique found valuable in a number of industrial plants are described, and there is a general bibliography on physical examinations and periodic physical examinations.

NURSES and nutritionists have worked together in the preparation of a series of Lesson Outlines for Maternity Classes recently published by the East Harlem Nursing and Health Demonstration (354 East 116 Street, New York city, price 35 cents). The pamphlet, which is excellently illustrated, explains the class procedure as it has been worked out in the Demonstration, with helpfully explicit directions as to the content of the lessons, and the nature of the leaflet and poster material to be presented to the mothers. At East Harlem fifty class sessions were held in 1924 with an average attendance of about nine persons, and at an average cost of $16.16. The per capita cost, $1.68, was a trifle higher than the cost of an ante-partum visit in the home that same year ($1.59), but it was felt that the class gave instruction under ideal conditions, since it could easily be suplemented by demonstrations of the subjects under discussion, and by the chance to observe standard maternity supplies again and again. The children of class members were cared for during their attendance at the meetings, which thus gave a short period of relief from family care with a chance for social relaxation.



From the bulletin of the State Department of Health, Ohio

A WORD TO THE WRITERS OF PUBLIC HEALTH PUBLICITY

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The City Map–Living Or Dead

By BLANCHE RENARD

SCIENTIFIC case workers know that you cannot make people do things, however correct the ground work, until you make them *want* to do them. It is equally true that a program superimposed on a community remains floating over an impenetrable surface until the community understands it, believes in it, and desires it. As the president of the Community Council of St. Louis said in a recent annual report, "The age-old adage, 'Man, Know Thyself,' is being supplemented by a still more important injunction, 'Community, Know Thyself.' "

In St. Louis we face the fact that the city covers 61.2 square miles of area, and has 842,614 population; that it is too extensive physically, too complex socially, too varied economically for its citizens to speak in terms of neighborly relationship or see, in an initial plan, community problems as a whole. Only by sub-dividing the city into its natural units can the specific problems be localized and brought home to the residents of that community. Action taken on the basis of civic responsibility in the smaller neighborhood areas, moreover, will be far more effective than what appears to be "outside" interest. In the light of these facts the Community Council of St. Louis organized into a committee a representative of the City Plan Commission, who had been thinking in terms of the assets and liabilities of the city from a physical standpoint, representatives of the research departments of a daily newspaper and the Bell Telephone Company, who were studying the city in terms of economic values, and representatives of welfare agencies concerned with social factors. This committee decided that comprehensive planning required as its basis small units of homogeneous areas and complete knowledge of all factors—physical, economic and social—in terms of those units; and further, that an attempt should be made to arouse the interest of the people in each area to their own neighborhood and then, by a process of comparison, to their neighbors' neighborhood. In other words, just as we would strengthen each member of the family, in a plan for the family as a unit, so should we develop neighborhood units as a basis for a larger community comprehension, and so make possible a strong chain of community links.

In accord with this plan St. Louis has been divided into twenty-six areas, each of them including, roughly, not over fifty thousand people. Many districts now under fifty thousand have been purposely planned in the expectation that as the city fills in its vacant areas these districts will greatly increase in population. Each district, so far as possible, is made up of people of similar interests and like racial, national and economic background and conditions, and is grouped about natural centers of population such as the intersection of great traffic arteries. So far as possible the boundaries have followed the actual divisions between areas of different character of population. The political boundaries between wards were not used because of their lack of permanency.

It is the intention of the committee that these districts shall be permanently used so that a continuous record of conditions of human life in St. Louis, month by month and year by year, may be kept. The advantages of this plan for long-time study of permanent units are obvious.

In order to capitalize all possible local enthusiasm and community feeling these districts have been named as well as numbered. The names have been taken from objects of local importance—such as parks, streets, names in common use which describe these districts, or the names of old real estate sub-divisions which still have significance.

All of the organizations whose representatives participated in the creation of this plan, including public agencies such as the city health department and city plan commission, and private case working agencies, have agreed to accept these districts for their work. The federal Bureau of the Census has been asked to use these district lines as the outside boundaries of its own census enumeration districts in 1930.

These districts will be used, in the first place, for compilation of all available information regarding human problems in St. Louis, such as births, deaths, increase or decrease in population, disease, delinquency, poverty, juvenile dependency, crime and other factors in the social life of the community. Their boundaries will be incorporated in the district lines of organization which operate on a city-wide basis, such as the St. Louis Provident Association, the Visiting Nurse Association, and the Children's Aid Society, while agencies at work in smaller communities will use one or more of these districts as defining their own spheres of influence and activity. Figures as to community

Professor E. W. Burgess of Chicago has protested against the hit-or-miss arbitrary districting by which many social agencies divide up their field of operations in large cities "as if the city were a corpse, instead of a living being." Miss Renard sketches here an attempt in St. Louis to treat the city map as a living organism and plan social work accordingly. In the next issue of the Mid-monthly Clarence A. Perry of the Russell Sage Foundation will suggest how neighborhood units can be created through physical planning in such a way that sense of community will naturally follow.

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conditions will be collected monthly by the agencies concerned and turned over to the Community Council, which will tabulate them. This organization will prepare comparative figures for the districts and consecutive records for the whole city.

This material, when analyzed, will be interpreted through charts and news articles which will be given both to the daily newspapers and the neighborhood publications, so that all the citizens of St. Louis may know exactly how their communities stand in terms of human welfare.

For the better information of each neighborhood, meetings will be arranged district by district by the Community Council. To these meetings, which will be held in central locations, all citizens will be invited. The latest available information will be given through charts and through competent speakers. Representatives of charitable and civic organizations will explain how the residents of these districts may use the facts so presented in attacking the human problems which are revealed, so that social agencies and citizens may work together for neighborhood improvement.

As a further step the Community Fund will use the same districts in organizing its campaign, so that residents of these districts, in giving to the fifty charities and philanthropies which make up the Community Fund, may know in terms of their own neighborhood problems exactly what kind of service they are supporting.

The plan will be extended throughout St. Louis County and be applied to county-wide agencies in the very near future.

A SKETCH of one of these districts will suggest how valuable this method may be. Tower Grove, district 16, is an area two miles square with a population of 39,800 individuals—approximately 9,700 families. Its original settlers came about twenty-five years ago from a more congested part of the city. They were for the most part first and second generation German, with a keen appreciation for the wooded area into which they moved. Both space and trees have been preserved. The area today covers about 400 city blocks and has 31 persons per acre in comparison to St. Louis' average of 40 persons per acre. Practically all houses are of the old design known as the "St. Louis Flat," housing two or four families. Each, as a rule, has its garden, its terrace and its hedge. The one-story bungalow with ample space on sides, rear and front represents a newer type of architecture. There has been little invasion by the popular apartment tenement. The district shows results of the thought and care given to it. Lots are not littered. Alleys are kept in as good condition as the streets. All of the streets are paved, though many are not city thoroughfares. The rents of this district are for the most part above the average rent paid in St. Louis. 64 per cent of the residents have telephones. This district has one park acre for every 140 citizens, twice as much park space for each person in its boundaries as the average for St. Louis as a whole. Its parks are well used for recreation, the citizens having enlisted the support of the Park Department for athletic equipment.

Tower Grove has within its boundaries 181 independent stores, including 63 groceries, 23 drug stores, 5 furniture houses, 14 ladies' ready-to-wear, 13 real estate offices, 3 music stores, 3 banks and so on. Nevertheless department stores welcome the opening of charge accounts from inhabitants of this neighborhood more readily than from any other neighborhood in St. Louis because of their well known stability.

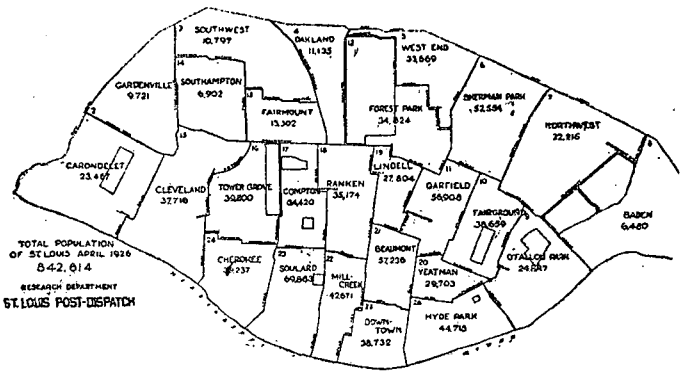
There are three grade schools of the most up-to-date type, two parochial schools, one high school, the latter built on a lot formerly used as a cemetery which neighborhood pressure had removed and had taken over by the Board of Education. There are sixteen churches.

We found the community to have a Parent-Teachers Association in every grade school. There are ten Boy Scout troops, and four Girl Scout troops. A study of reported contagious diseases including scarlet fever, diphtheria and tuberculosis, over a two months period, shows this neighborhood to be far below its quota, and a two months study of the intake of the Social Service Exchange indicated that dependency and delinquency were almost nil.

This area could be diagnosed in such terms as "thrifty," "foresighted" and "desirable." Since community planning involves both giving to and partaking of city-wide resources, this community is indicated as an excellent environment for the placement of children in foster homes, or as a source of Big Brothers and Big Sisters. Within its own groups a very successful community fund team should be developed for neighborhood solicitation.

These, then, represent a few of the factors which can be etched into a neighborhood picture.

THE educational uses of the plan were experimentally demonstrated on the evening of June 9 when approximately fourteen hundred residents of the Tower Grove District crowded into the auditorium of the new Roosevelt High School for a program presented by the Tower Grove District Council. This Council was made up of representatives of all discoverable groups, religious, fraternal, political and otherwise, in the neighborhood to which were added a number of conspicuous individual residents of the territory. The invitation was issued in their name, not by the St. Louis Community Council. Attendance was stimulated through hand bills distributed from door to door, through trailers attached to the films in the neighborhood motion picture theaters, through announcements made from church pulpits, and through enclosures or additional paragraphs in the circulars of business and civic organizations of the neighborhood. The appeal seemed irresistible and universal. The attendance included babes in arms, small boys and girls who sat in the front row so as to be as close as possible



A MAP WITH A MEANING

Each section of this map of St. Louis stands not for an arbitrary geographical or political division, but for a neighborhood group of inhabitants. Tower Grove, for example, is well-to-do, healthy, law-abiding, interested in gardens; a good place to raise funds and to place out children for adoption

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to the show, responsible citizens and aged "first inhabitants."

The program was diversified:

Introductory remarks by the chairman
Girl Scout demonstration, Echoes of the Scout Festival
Speech on the growth of Tower Grove District by the clerk of the Circuit Court, a "Tower Grovian"
Slavic songs
Greek classic dance
Speech on educational advantages by a member of the Board of Education
Tumbling act by boys of Y.M.C.A.
Scotch airs
Speech on The City by the president of the Board of Aldermen
Boy Scout demonstration
Speech on the Community by the director of the Community Council
Dances by pupils of the Grand Boulevard Community Center

The best evidence of the success of the meeting was the fact that the volunteer chairman and the committee are planning another meeting in the fall. Tower Grove has begun to know itself, and likes the sensation.

The entire study, just begun, has already shown us how to secure and to use many useful facts which have never before been tied together. This, as a function of the Community Council, is a very real step toward community planning.

Buffalo vs. Buffalo

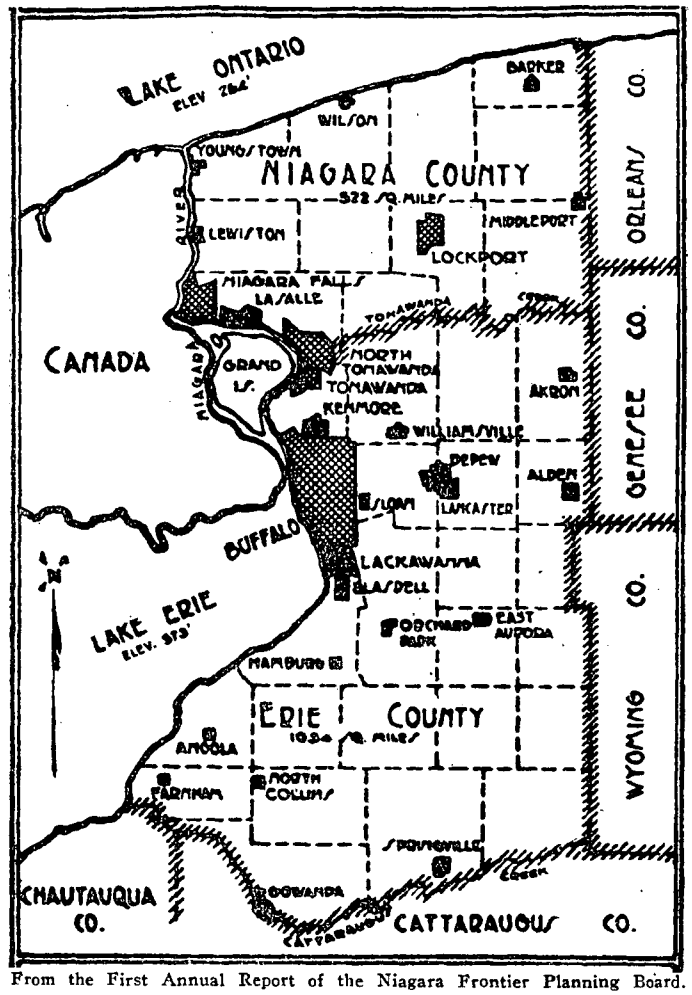
By GEDDES SMITH

THE first "region" in New York state to follow the lead suggested by the State Commission of Housing and Regional Planning by setting up an official regional planning board was that of the Niagara Frontier. A statewide planning conference was held at Buffalo in 1924; in November of that year the Niagara Frontier Planning Association was organized. Early in 1925 a planning board was projected; the state legislature created such a body on April 1; and since the summer of 1925 the Association and the Board have been at work at joint headquarters in Buffalo. The Board has made its first annual report, and the work of planning for the future of Niagara and Erie counties, as a unit, is well under way.

The Board's report is distinguished in at least two particulars. One is that this group of officials—including, as the legislature prescribed, the mayors of Buffalo and of five smaller cities, three representatives from the Board of Supervisors of each county, and a thirteenth member elected by these twelve have seen fit to give a very early place in their report to a broad summary of the economic geography of the region:

The Region is divided by natural configuration of land into four somewhat distinct natural subdivisions: first, the tableland at the north, bordering Lake Ontario, and extending with gradual rise in elevation to the Lewiston Escarpment. This subdivision is known as the Niagara fruit belt, being devoted largely to fruit growing, but with extensive general farming.

At the Escarpment, the elevation rises rather abruptly from an average of four hundred feet above sea level on the lower table, to another general level of fairly flat country averaging eight hundred feet in elevation above sea level. In this second table are located the six thriving cities and the network of railroads, main highways, and navigable waters, and in



From the First Annual Report of the Niagara Frontier Planning Board. THE NIAGARA REGION TODAY: HOW SHALL IT GROW?

which the tremendous industrial development of the Region is largely confined.

The third subdivision comprises rolling uplands at average elevations above sea level of from eight hundred to twelve hundred feet, devoted largely to the dairy industry and to general farming, while the fourth subdivision in the extreme southern portion of the Region is fairly mountainous in character, rising to an extreme elevation of seventeen hundred feet above sea level. While some portions of this hilly country are not easily accessible, it contributes liberally to the food supply of the Region from some excellent farm development.

This is going to the fundamentals. Such a summary recalls Patrick Geddes' study of the valley section which he considers basic to so much of what we call civilization, and reflects more directly the work done by the state commission in plotting its own "ideal section" of lake-front development in New York (see The Survey, May 1, 1925, p. 160).

Later in the report the Board draws on the recommendations of the state commission for a suggested outline of the "order and scope of investigation" which approaches the task of planning in so human and comprehensive a way that it should with due reference to local factors be serviceable to every community that looks forward to intelligent planning. To quote it in full:

I. RELATION OF REGION TO THE WORLD AT LARGE
   a. Flow of materials:
      1. Origin of raw materials used in region for food, shelter, manufacturing, etc.
      2. Origin and destination of goods passing through region.
      3. Destination of products grown or manufactured in region and sent out from region.

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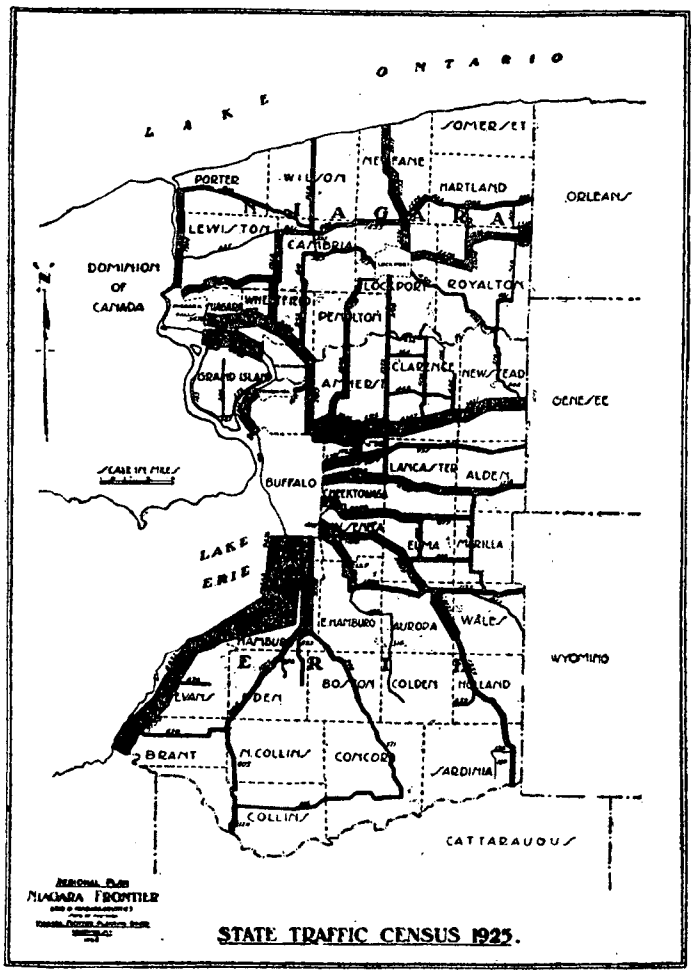


STATE TRAFFIC CENSUS 1925.

From the First Annual Report of the Niagara Frontier Planning Board.
MUST THIS CONCENTRATION OF TRAFFIC BE INTENSIFIED, OR CAN IT BE DISTRIBUTED?

b. Problems of shipping, handling and marketing: Rail and water transportation equipment; terminal facilities. Under this heading should come an immediate study of
   1. The possible influence of proposed deep waterways.
   2. The possibility of greater use of the canal.

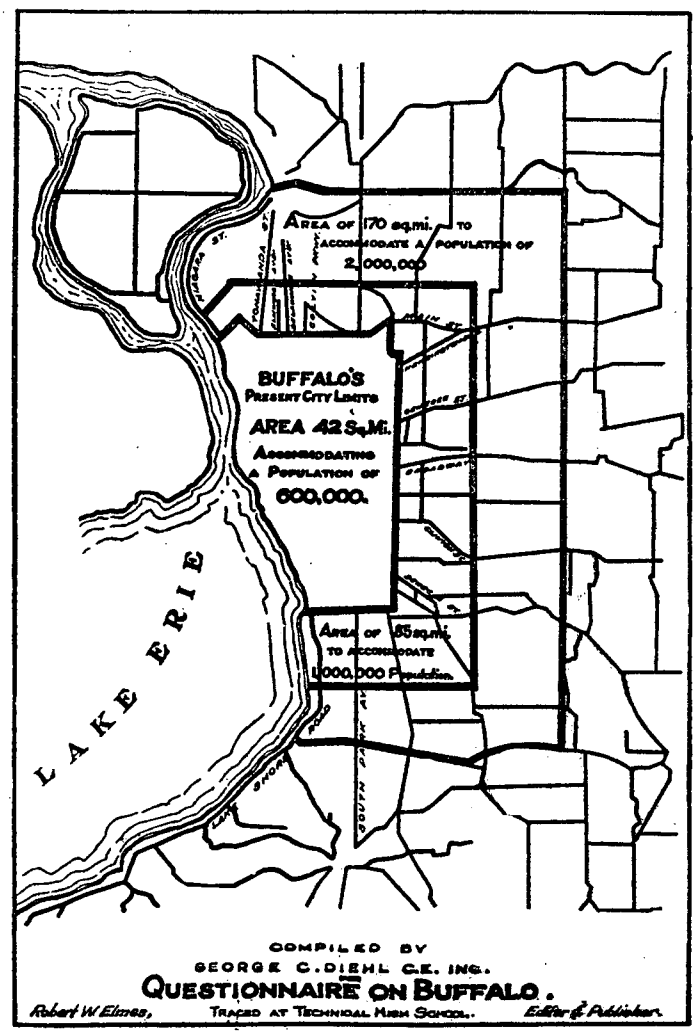
II. FUNDAMENTAL FACTORS WITHIN THE REGION
   a. Food supply and markets: particularly in relation to development of local resources and simplification of distribution.
   b. Relation of industry to:
      1. Source of raw materials.
      2. Power supply.
      3. Labor supply and housing.
      4. Transportation.
   c. Relation of labor to:
      1. Location of industries.
      2. Transportation.
      3. Recreation and amenities.

III. POSSIBILITIES AND PROBLEMS OF GROWTH OF THE REGION
   a. Study of tendencies leading to the conditions of over-concentration. Correction and avoidance of such tendencies, in order to permit the comprehensive development and utilization of the Region as a whole.
   b. Study of problems and directing of decentralization so as to reduce economic waste in transportation, traffic, and public services; involving comprehensive plans for roads, utilities and transportation, as a means of serving and relating various areas.
   c. Zoning, local and regional, to be studied in relation to problems of cities, villages and open territory, and the relation of these to the Region.
   d. Parks and recreational facilities in relation to the eventual needs of the communities in the Region. Placement of parks and open spaces so as to separate and conserve the character of communities, without sacrificing their usefulness.

The first point of attack during the year has, naturally, been the planning of regional highways and parks. The program for the current year includes "studies of industries, railroads and canals in respect to population, and . . . tentative plans for complete zoning of the Region as to industry, farming, and housing, etc., etc." The spirit of the entire report is clearly that of recognizing and conserving the underlying interests of the Region.

There has also been published a Questionnaire on Buffalo, as a supplement to Buffalo's textbook, authorized by the city council, adopted by the department of education for use in the public schools, approved for use in the Catholic schools, and endorsed by the directors of the Buffalo Chamber of Commerce. Sections of this Questionnaire have recently been circulated by a Buffalo trust company under the title Planning the City. In addition to articles by the chairman of the city planning committee and by Chauncy J. Hamlin, chairman of the regional Planning Board, there is a statement on Highway Transportation in Erie County, by the county engineer, in which the old-fashioned appetite for bigger and still bigger cities is assiduously cultivated. Buffalo school-children are thus exhorted to make Buffalo grow:

Today Buffalo is the eleventh city in size in the United States. It is most conveniently situated, has greater advantages, a finer climate, more diversified industries and is a better place to live than any other city anywhere.


AREA OF 170 sq.mi. TO ACCOMMODATE A POPULATION OF 2,000,000
BUFFALO'S PRESENT CITY LIMITS
AREA 42 Sq.Mi.
ACCOMMODATING A POPULATION OF 600,000.
AREA OF 85 sq.mi. TO ACCOMMODATE 1,000,000 Population
LAKE ERIE
COMPILED BY
GEORGE C. DIEHL C.E. INC.
QUESTIONNAIRE ON BUFFALO.
Robert W Elmes, TRADED AT TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL. Editor & Publisher.

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Tools In Print

THE SETTLEMENT PRIMER, *by Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch. Boston: National Federation of Settlements. Paper 50 cents. Boards 75 cents.*

It is an heroic task to attempt to make a "primer" out of any body of information and belief so variable, so transitional, and so complex as that relating to settlements. But the author's happy combination of flexible imagination and shrewd common-sense has enabled her to escape the obvious hazards of arbitrary definition and to produce a suggestive treatise. There is a world of organization wisdom in one casual line: "People tire of getting together for no special reason."

A CITY PLANNING PRIMER, *by the Advisory Committee on City Planning and Zoning of the Division of Building and Housing of the Department of Commerce. Washington.*

A brief statement of fundamentals, properly free from cumbersome detail from the familiar over-emphasis on real estate values as the end and aim of planning. In its preliminary edition, multigraphed, it has little "come-hither." It is to be hoped that a permanent edition will be agreeably printed and liberally illustrated.

WHAT EVERY WOMAN SHOULD KNOW ABOUT CITIZENSHIP, *by Cecilia Razovsky. New York: Department of Immigrant Aid, National Council of Jewish Women. Price 15 cents.*

An admirably complete summary of all the tangled questions of citizenship in which the Cable Act involved women. Typography has been ingeniously utilized to increase the clarity and emphasis of the numerous facts which are necessary to cover varied circumstances.

In 1890, Buffalo was a city of a quarter million; in 1920, of a half million and it is perfectly apparent that Buffalo will continue to grow and will be a city of one million and later a city of two million.

Just how long a time will elapse before the population arrives at the one million and two million marks is dependent upon the enthusiasm, interest, the initiative and the energy of Buffalo's citizens, and, particularly, of the younger citizens, that is, the boys and girls. . . .

The more quickly adequate highways are constructed, the sooner Buffalo will arrive at the one million and two million marks.

The discussion of highways which follows, in which it is made clear that Buffalo should at once widen its feeders within the "new million city line" so that it is possible the million may be attained "within a single decade." The point is driven home by the map reproduced on p. 93.

A sharper or more discouraging rebuff to the regional consciousness which the Niagara frontier seems on the point of developing could hardly be offered. It is impossible to plan a region for regional values and at the same time to force population growth and concentration in its central city. And is it really to the interest of Buffalo to do so? If the Niagara frontier falls a victim to what Lewis Mumford calls megalopolitan planning, will not the last state of its megalopolis be worse than its first? Buffalo seems to be a city divided against itself.

OF CURIOUS interest in the progress of city planning is Mussolini's reported fiat that the city of Rome must forthwith recapture its ancient glories and, in a manner befitting a modern and Fascist commonwealth (perhaps a contradiction in terms?), clothe itself in architectural splendor. The imperialistic gesture is seen also in the gift by Mussolini of an Italian site for the projected world capital or center of communications of which an American architect of Norwegian descent, Hendrik Christian Anderson, has been an advocate for many years. The land lies between Ostia, the ancient Roman seaport, and Maccarese, "with a beautiful sea front, and majestic pine trees on either side." It is twenty-five miles by rail from Rome. Mussolini's promise is to give the land free to the nations of the earth. David Starr Jordan, reporting the gift, writes that he is "not an admirer of dictatorships, nor of Mussolini," but wishes to give him credit for something which may be of very great value to the peace of the world.

"WOULDN'T you like to build houses in the sand like the other children?" a playleader asked two solemn-faced little Chedar boys who came to the new playground in Jerusalem. "Oh, no," they laughed. "We are not their kind." "Well, what kind of children are these?" "They are play children, but we are learning children," the five-year old scholars replied, according to The Playground for September. This first playground in Palestine has its own problems to solve in stimulating play among some groups of the Zionist community, but it is going forward and will soon be duplicated in a number of cities in Palestine if the hopes of an American committee, now being formed, are realized.

THE KEY to the education of most boys and girls is to be found not so much in the contact which they make with constructive institutions—school, church, social agency, and what not—but in the very considerable areas of time and space in which no such formal contacts operate. The National Federation of Settlements is circulating an address on Basic Principles in Boys' Work, by S. Max Nelson of the Union Settlement, New York, in which he reports his conclusions as to the use of the typical settlement boy's time. Out of every 168-hour week, he finds, the boy spends 37 per cent of his time in sleep, 4 per cent in eating, 4 in dressing, 17 in school, 4 per cent in the settlement and 34 per cent, more than half his waking hours, in the street. That is when the community stamps him as its own. In Richmond, Virginia, meanwhile, a study to discover the actual relationship between boys and girls and the institutions that supposedly influence them is reported by W. G. Bate, superintendent of schools. Out of approximately 3,000 boys and girls between ten and eighteen it appears that 23 per cent are untouched by any agency; 8.5 per cent are reached only by some agency other than the school; 67.7 per cent by school activities, 41.5 per cent by Sunday School, 11.2 per cent by the Y. M. C. A. and 14.5 per cent by miscellaneous agencies.

THE INGENIOUS PLAN of the gentleman who placed his house on a turntable so that it might always face the sun has not helped much in the permanent solution of the difficulties brought about by the typical American gridiron plan of street layout, in which east and west streets are common. The Nation's Health calls attention to the proposal of Noulan Cauchon, president of the Canadian Town Planning Institute, that all city blocks shall be hexagonal instead of rectangular, as a contribution to the welfare of sun-loving tenants. In the due east-and-west street, of course, the sun and its health-giving ultra-violet rays cannot reach the south side of the street during the winter months. But if the block be hexagonal, the streets at both north and south sides of it may be at angles which allow the sun access at some time of the day in all seasons to both sides of the street. In such a block, laid out with its vertical sides running north and south, two-thirds of the street frontages and a corresponding percentage of rear walls are facing south-westerly or south-easterly, so that there is a high percentage of direct right-angled sun penetration in the dwellings.

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Fourteen Million Philanthropists

By C. W. ARESON

APPROXIMATELY eleven million members of various fraternal orders, more than half a million men in the American Legion, a million or more in the "Service" clubs (once known as luncheon clubs), hundreds of thousands of women in women's clubs, constitute a great host of ordinary citizens that in one way or another are engaging in social welfare activities. Most of them are not social workers or acquainted with social work methods. They might be called volunteers under their own direction. What are they doing? More particularly, in what directions are they moving in child welfare work?

Children are the magnet toward which the sentiment of many such groups turns. Indeed, one fears that the day may arrive when no club will be complete without its "children's welfare" activity. Not long since, one of the delegates on a certain convention train passed his hat for the "orphans." Receiving about one hundred dollars he became inspired to commit his organization to a national program of aid to windows and orphans. In the course of several years he had gathered about three thousand dollars; his president became impressed, and a national children's agency was asked to advise. It developed that the total national membership is only 3,000 persons. There were no known "orphans," and a high per cent of the persons to be served are young, unmarried women. When the time came to face the real question, the matter was voted down in convention, and the project apparently is at an end. The Ku Klux Klan in Pennsylvania and Texas, at least, has commenced to "do good" to children, both by supporting sentimental pieces of established work and by organizing projects of its own, all too often with little regard for existing community facilities.

But there is a more worthwhile record. Space does not suffice to picture the undertakings of all of such groups, beginning with the founding of a Masonic Orphanage in California in 1850, and an Orphan Asylum of the Independent Order of B'nai B'rith in New Orleans in 1855. In general the establishment of orphanages went on steadily in line with community approval of this form of child care. Up to 1900, thirty-eight were founded by fraternal orders; in the next twenty years, forty-four more, and in 1921-1922 seven more were added. For the most part these belong to a few of the strong orders: the Masons have thirty-three; the Odd Fellows, forty; and the Knights of Pythias, seven.

Since the War, interest in children has increased in many places as a result of the widespread propaganda for relief of children in Europe and the education of many communities by the Red Cross. Agitation over juvenile "crime waves" has also stimulated many groups to action. Programs have become more varied. Some of course have been, or still are quite indefinite, but not a few have taken shape along definite lines, and with the counsel of trained social workers.

The Order of the Mystic Shrine, for example, and the International Society for Crippled Children, are building up services for crippled children. The Shrine is building hospitals in larger cities to which all crippled children are eligible without charge. So far, these hospitals have been erected and are being maintained by assessments on members. They are situated as follows:

Shreveport, La.	50 beds
San Francisco, Cal	" "
Twin Cities, Minneapolis & St. Paul	" "
Portland, Oregon	" "
Montreal, Canada	" "
Springfield, Mass.	" "
St. Louis, Mo.	" "
Chicago, Ill.	" "
Mobile Units	
Salt Lake City, Utah	20 "
Spokane, Washington	" "
Winnipeg, Manitoba	" "
Honolulu, Hawaii	25 "

Admissions are apportioned to contiguous states and the best of orthopedic service is given by local physicians who are in charge of the technical work.

The International Society for Crippled Children, of which Edgar F. ("Daddy") Allen is president and Harry H. Howett, formerly of the Ohio Department of Public Welfare, is executive secretary, was organized first among Rotarians in Ohio. Its purpose is the assistance of crippled children by the coordination and development of public and private resources for care—legislative, hospital, clinical, and educational—and by the formation of state societies for crippled children which undertake to discover such children by means of censuses and the use of friendly social agencies,

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and to spread facilities for care as widely as possible in order to place them within reach of a greater number of children.

Such societies are now organized in Ohio, Michigan, Kentucky, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Illinois, Oklahoma, Kansas and West Virginia, as well as the Province of Ontario. Many of the state societies have trained full-time executives and all are cooperating with local welfare agencies, particularly in the health field. The New York State Society was responsible for securing the first State Commission for Survey of Crippled Children whose legislative recommendations became law on April 1, 1925. The Elks of New York State and the Federation of Women's Clubs cooperated throughout, and many fraternal groups aided the Commission to make the survey on which its recommendations were based. The legislation in New York is a model of coordination, and as a result of the cooperation of these organizations has a considerable public interested to see that it operates well.

A LOCAL program among Masons that is noteworthy for its completeness is that of the Masonic Grand Lodge in Georgia. Following a study of their work by the Child Welfare League of America, they inaugurated a program of varied assistance to dependent children which is outstanding in the Order. Every application is investigated by a worker from the Grand Lodge. Relatives are found and enlisted, financial and other assistance is given to widows with children, and admission to the institution after all these measures have been taken is generally regarded as a measure leading to readjustment in the community.

As yet the program is not in the hands of technically trained workers, but the present policies are all likely to work toward professional personnel.

In Massachusetts and certain other states the Masons have for some time granted subsidies to the widows and children of members. Certain Grand Lodges are considering the adoption of such a program as supplementary to their institutions; others see it as possibly preceding in usefulness the use of the institution. Increasing change is likely in this Order now that the example has been set.

A women's organization stands out as having early adopted progressive policies. A number of years ago the Knights of Pythias Sisters in Indiana, on the advice of the State Board of Charities, began to assist childen of members by granting aid to mothers or to relatives in whose homes the children were placed. While the work has never grown to large numbers, the plan has proven so satisfactory that it has continued without interruption as the order's policy. Two years ago fifty-three children were being cared for in this way under license of the State Board of Charities.

The Independent Order of Red Men has so far relied chiefly on small grants to widowed mothers with children and has never felt the need of other provision. An interesting variant in an Order whose care of children is almost wholly institutional has been the action of the Odd Fellows in Georgia who for years have offered non-institutional care to the dependent children of members in that state. This program has offered more flexibility than the institution alone, which is still common among the Odd Fellows.

Illustrative also of the new trend among such groups is the program of the American Legion. Very early in its history the Legion felt called upon to assist veterans and their children in cases of need. One of the early proposals was a national "home" of the general type of Mooseheart, to which children have been brought from all corners of the country as the sole service of the order. Certain Legionnaires, as well as the Forty and Eight branch of the Legion, were not satisfied that the plan was feasible, or in anything but extent, especially modern. The National Children's Welfare Committee of the Legion gathered what facts it could, sought to discover what various state Legion organizations thought should be done, and applied to the Federal Children's Bureau, and the Child Welfare League of America, the managers of Mooseheart, and others for facts and guidance in shaping their policies. As a result of this effort to learn what the Legion should do before deciding what it would undertake, this committee embodied four cardinal policies in a proposed program:

(1) Cooperation with all responsible public and private child welfare agencies;
(2) Preservation of children's own homes wherever possible;
(3) When this proved impossible, placement in carefully chosen foster homes with which local Legion posts could maintain contact;
(4) Or temporary care in a billet (small institution) until return to the child's own family or placement could be effected; billets to be used as "clearing houses" and to be established in various parts of the country, but only in response to demonstrated need.

These points were all included in the program adopted at the 1923 National Convention of the Legion.

Following a lull in activity during 1924 a Division of Child Welfare was set up at Legion Headquarters in Indianapolis in the spring of 1925, with John W. Gorby as director and Emma C. Puschner, formerly in charge of the work of the St. Louis Board of Children's Guardians, as national field secretary. The director's immediate task is to organize the various states to carry out the program locally. The national field secretary receives all applications for aid that are not handled immediately by local groups. She controls all admissions to, and discharges from, the three billets, and in the course of these duties draws local Legion groups and local social agencies together on cases referred to her. Necessarily, the work done varies in quality. It may be poor in some places, and good in others. A national body does not begin to function smoothly in six months or a year. Nevertheless, the following figures are of interest as showing what happened in the six months from May to November 1925. During this time the cases of 96 children were investigated and acted upon. The field secretary's statement points out that "of these 96 children only 26 were admitted to our care, the other 70 were given attention through other sources contacted by us—either local Legion or Auxiliary Departments or community or state agencies for child care." In the same period 24 children were admitted to the three billets and 20 discharged from the Otter Lake billet to rehabilitated families. Permanent foster homes were found for two children, all that so far have required this type of care.

These figures do not include a great many instances of aid by local posts of the Legion or the Auxiliary. A great deal of such work is not guided by trained service of any sort, except insofar as local agencies have succeeded in making good contacts with the local Legion members, or local posts, or Legion leaders are persuaded by the national leaders to rely on the social agencies. In consequence, the social

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work of Legion post committees may often not represent the policies of the organization nationally. On the other hand, however, the national office affords a contact to which the agencies can turn with assurance of cooperative response.

The Legion, in common with similar bodies, however, is not content simply to hand over its work to social agencies, satisfying its own urge for service by merely paying the bill. Its average post committee wants some personal share as well. The problem of the national office is then to utilize volunteer energy by guiding it along case work lines and, chiefly, into cooperation with case working agencies. The figures just quoted give some idea how far this has been done.

In line with the general emphasis in the Legion on service of a modern sort, it is likely that more facilities for temporary care, especially foster boarding homes, will be actively developed. There is in the National Committee a real appreciation of the advantage of this form of care and of temporary assistance to families as over against extension of the "billets." Progressive state organizations are taking steps to secure trained children's workers to have charge of the technical side of their work and the national committee is planning to strengthen its professional staff and to increase the financial resources available for such temporary care.

ANOTHER outstanding development in fraternal welfare policy appears in the new extension service of Mooseheart, and the conduct of the work of the Brotherhood of American Yeomen, both of which orders are undertaking under certain conditions to maintain widowed mothers and their families in their own homes and communities, in addition to supplying institutional care. Under the direction of Rodney H. Brandon, executive secretary of Mooseheart, local committees are being developed to cooperate with the institution in such cases. These committees generally consist of two members of the local Moose Lodge, the judge of the Juvenile Court or other public official administering mothers' aid, the secretary of the local family welfare society, and a fifth member from the general public.

MOOSEHEART relies on these committees, and, increasingly, on investigations made by cooperating social agencies to determine the kind and amount of aid to be given families in which there are one or more handicapped children, in which one or more children are too old to enter Mooseheart, or in which the father is incapacitated, yet living with his family. The local committees are expected to plan a reasonable budget for the family and to marshal all possible local resources such as mothers' aid, or accident compensation, and various medical and dental services. If the resources fall short of a decent standard of support, but the plans in general seem to be sound, Mooseheart undertakes to supply the local committee with a monthly sum sufficient to make up a reasonable household budget. On March 1, 1926, about 90 such families with 300 children were being aided in this way. On the same date there were 1,265 children at Mooseheart.

The child care program of the Brotherhood of American Yeomen has only recently begun to bear fruit. Their plans have not yet advanced to the use of community facilities as widely as Mooseheart is now using them. Nevertheless, the officer in charge of such work, A. N. Farmer, assists widows with dependents to secure mothers' aid, and other forms of local assistance, and also grants assistance from a central fund accumulated by the Order. So far as we can learn, cooperation with social agencies has not yet been organized. The most widely known feature of the program is an institution, the City of Childhood, now in process of development outside of Dundee, Illinois. This is to be an institution of the cottage type, with special emphasis on the educational provisions, including the type of personnel in contact with the children. Those in charge of the program intend "that every individual case should be dealt with on its own merits"; mothers are to be aided in certain instances to keep their homes intact; placement in foster homes is contemplated. A recent report shows that 389 children are being aided in their own homes. Now that the institution is being actively developed there will be considerable incentive to take children to it who previously were perforce aided in other ways. The special service the institution may render in conjunction with the general scheme of care will depend on the adequacy of the case work service which will investigate applicants for aid and plan what is to be done in each case.

Progress in line with present developments in institutional care of children depends very much on such a provision as this. In general, the concentration of children from wide areas in a "national home" is losing favor. Mooseheart is taking definite steps to build up local services and the American Legion is organizing its service to function locally. An increasing demand is thus made on local social agencies to work with diversified groups, but the only alternative to this is a crisscrossing of lines of service nationally which cannot make for good community equipment.

Years before Mooseheart was established or the Yeoman program formulated, the Junior Order, United American Mechanics, established a national home for children at Tiffin, Ohio. Children are accepted without case-work discrimination by a committee, the members of which, residing in different states, pass upon certain application forms, recommendations and evidence of the father's connection with the Order. Obviously all and sundry may gain admittance and stay indefinitely. The superintendent, C. H. Kernan, maintains a good spirit in the institution in spite of severe overcrowding and inability to control the intake. Not having a policy of local assistance, the Order is building a second institution at Lexington, N. C., and so far as we can learn is continuing to admit children without the benefit of careful social investigation of each application.

AN interesting piece of health work is that of the Women's Benefit Association, which has developed local health centers and nursing service for members and their families in some fifty communities under the direction of Bina M. West, its president. Through this service families receive periodic health examinations, children are examined and treated, and nursing service is furnished to those member families in need of it. At the last National Fraternal Congress health work of this nature was urged as a logical accompaniment to fraternal insurance and as a measure which ought to decrease the number of "orphans" coming from families made dependent by preventable disease and death. Doctors in various fraternals which insure their members are becoming interested in the idea. The example of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company is also a

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stimulus. As yet, however, the idea has gained no vigorous hold outside of the Order mentioned. The Women's Benefit Association also organizes group work, and summer vacation facilities for the girls in members' families. So far as we can learn this work is not in close touch with local social agencies, except possibly in cases of hospital service or relief that exceeds the very modest resources of any local branch.

Certain of the labor unions have developed health clinics and medical service to a degree beyond that reached as yet by the fraternal orders. This however has taken place in the larger cities and only among a relatively small number of unions. When the fraternal orders really see the business and welfare value of promoting health service their ramifications into communities of all types, including small cities and towns, ought to make their service quite unique. The Womens Benefit Association is a pioneer among them.

"SERVICE clubs" are fostering a very great variety of projects in their local communities. The Kiwanis Clubs of Colorado and Wyoming, forming a Kiwanis District, under the leadership of E. C. van Diest, district governor, are making a very careful approach toward a comprehensive program in each state into which will be drawn all other similar organizations, women's organizations, social service bodies, and interested citizens to work for the coordination of both public and private welfare services and improvement in quality of work done. As a first step the Child Welfare League of America was engaged to gather facts in the field showing actual conditions and needs and to present definite recommendations. A League for Child Welfare has been incorporated in Colorado under the leadership of Kiwanis to put these recommendations into effect and to continue to work in this field. Paid membership is being secured all over the state and service clubs are actively participating. In Wyoming Governor Nellie Ross is being asked to appoint a commission to draft new juvenile laws and present recommendations on all aspects of child welfare in the state. As in Colorado, Kiwanis is taking the initiative in bringing the matter to public attention and in securing the interest of other organizations. A State Conference of Social Work has been formed with the cooperation of these clubs and has their backing.

Another unique Kiwanis enterprise is the Big Brother work in Vancouver, B. C., unique because of the care with which the individual men and boys who are to be brought together as Big and Little Brothers are studied before assignment by a committee of three headed by a physician. This preliminary analysis of mutual suitability is often neglected, resulting in much disappointment to the Big Brothers and slight benefit to the boys. Genuine case work is as necessary here as in any other attempt to deal with personal relationships.

A systematic approach to work with boys is shown by the Knights of Columbus, which is offering a certain number of scholarships to men who wish to enter the Department of Boy Guidance of Notre Dame University under the direction of Ray Hoyer. This is a graduate department offering courses leading to a Master's Degree. The organizers hope that the serious content of the course will attract mature men. The Knights of Columbus not only furnish scholarships but actively foster the interests of the Department as an expression of service by the order.

Limitation of space forbids mention of such programs as Rotary's Boys Week, devoted to reminding the community of the oncoming generation; of the numerous recreational projects fostered by all sorts of local organizations; of the support given the Child Labor Amendment by the National Federation of Women's Clubs and many fraternal orders during the passage of the Amendment through Congress; of the efforts of Parent-Teacher Associations to connect school and home more closely, and many local projects.

In many places social workers have become discouraged by the desultory and opportunist attitude of club groups toward social undertakings worthy of serious attack. Child welfare projects can be exploited because of their advertising value. To some extent the more primitive they are the better "copy" of a certain sort they furnish. Eagerness for "credit" for good works deflects the singleness of purpose of many groups. In this divided state of mind the continuance of an "activity" can become more important than the solution of a social problem. Certain complication too arises from the fact that certain service clubs are prevented by their rules from committing themselves to a program for more than a year. Occasionally, on the other hand, a club may undertake to attack a problem of juvenile delinquency, for example, which is really a community task too large for a single organization of volunteers. Still other clubs and orders are charmed—and satisfied—by the Christmas basket and the summer outing. The question as to how much time may profitably be spent educating such groups often is raised.

The disquieting fact is that they are going to engage in child welfare in some fashion. An encouraging fact is that good precedents for them to follow are being worked out with increasing frequency by the orders and groups themselves.

After Disaster

By ROYAL CLYDE AGNE

WHEN fire, flood, hurricane or other disaster sweeps over a community, there must first come relief, then rehabilitation. To the well known classification of "family rehabilitation," the American Red Cross has added within comparatively recent experience, the category "business rehabilitation." A family cannot be considered rehabilitated until it again posseses a regular income, to enable it to carry on independently, as before the disaster. Family relief work in disasters is incomplete until it has taken cognizance of the need to restore the family income.

In business rehabilitation as in other departments of disaster relief need is the primary basis of consideration. Such factors as the age, health, and number of dependents; resources or assets; liabilities or indebtedness; bills receivable and bills payable; inventories of stock and equipment before and after the disaster; gross and net monthly income for the past year; overhead expense; the possibility of credit extension, and finally the plans of the business man are carefully assembled, related and weighed. This procedure means a thorough review of all of the business man's office books, a considerable correspondence with wholesalers, and a check-up in the community to discover what there is of tangible or intangible business capital remaining with which to start anew. These must be the foundations for a new income.

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In registering business cases a classification in order of essentiality is followed, and they are dealt with according to this rating. Here, for example, is a grocery store owned by one man whose family is solely dependent on it. It takes precedence over a confectionery store on which the owner is only partially dependent for his income. A grocery store is more essential to the life of a community than is a confectionery store. And when a family's sole support is derived from a business, that business is given preference in consideration over one which yields only partial support. Companies and corporations involving a number of stockholders not wholly dependent on the business affected are given last consideration. So far there have never been sufficiently large relief funds to aid this group. For fair treatment it would be necessary to exhaust the resources of each individual stockholder before the corporation or company would be rightfully eligible for assistance from public funds.

After all the data setting forth the present status of the business are assembled and systematized and properly correlated, a plan is formulated in conference with the business man or woman, who may continue in the same business or change to one better adapted to the existing circumstances. In one of our recent disasters, a business woman was so severely injured that she could not continue lifting the heavy goods in her grocery store. After looking about in her own community to see what was needed and in other communities to learn how certain businesses were succeeding, she decided to establish a shop to handle necessities for babies and small children. There was none in her community, and she discovered that in neighboring cities such merchandising was successful. Accordingly, an award was made from Red Cross funds to purchase equipment and stock sufficient to set up a very respectable and attractive shop. She followed up her accounts receivable from the grocery business, and through the good offices of the Red Cross, her creditors broke up her indebtedness to them into comfortable monthly notes with and without interest, beginning some six months after the start of her new venture. Almost without exception wholesalers have been ready to cooperate to the fullest extent with their customers and the American Red Cross in business rehabilitation plans. Bills are frequently discounted voluntarily, and credit is extended and increased.

Business awards from relief funds are made for buildings or repairs of buildings, equipment and stock. No pre-disaster indebtedness can be paid out of relief funds, as the purpose of an award is to establish an income which permits the owner to take care of his own indebtedness. Relief funds awarded in business cases are paid directly to venders for stock or equipment purchased since the disaster or for building materials. The itemized bills for such goods are carefully checked over as to necessity and price, and, approved both by the business man concerned and the American Red Cross Relief director, are paid. This method enables the business man to get exactly the kind of goods he knows he can sell, for the world is his market in which to buy.

It is surprising to learn that in most instances in which a man's business place is swept away by disaster, there still remain intangible assets on which to rebuild. And such businesses have frequently startled their communities by coming back with renewed vigor and success. Often the need is not for large gifts from relief funds, but rather advice and planning in reducing overhead, increasing sales, advantageous buying and general business engineering. Business cases in disaster relief deal with everything from the small corner shoe shine stand to the general department store. Barber shops, tailoring shops, millinery establishments, flower stores, beauty parlors, greenhouses, boiler works, carpenter shops, hotels, grocery stores, restaurants, electric stores, plumbing shops, poultry yards, garages, photographic studios, architects' studios, dentists' and doctors' and lawyers' offices—all these are found in the range of business cases handled in a single disaster.

In checking up later in business communities that had been stricken with disaster and were assisted through Red Cross procedures to get a new start, very rare exceptions of business failures were found. Great care is taken from the beginning to assure success and only when unforeseen circumstances enter is the outcome jeopardized.

Indeed, apparent catastrophe may even result in business gain. In a recent disaster a hotel was damaged to the extent of five thousand dollars. It was rented at the time on a long term lease. The furnishings of the hotel had been sold by the owner to the renter on monthly instalments. Because of heavy mortgages and other liabilities, both landlord and tenant were barely making a living. Neither had the resources with which to start again. The lease was surrendered, and each case then was considered on its merits. The renter had lost four thousand dollars worth of payments on the furniture and owed as much more. The furniture was greatly damaged. This "furnishings contract" was also canceled. Then the renter found a small hotel in another city where the overhead was comparatively low and with assistance from Red Cross funds purchased a half interest in it. The title was cleared, the property inventoried, and all legal papers properly drawn up and signed. The income, after paying the limited monthly payments, left a net return of more than three times that derived from the former hotel. This establishment was within her business capacity.

The owner of the first hotel had on hand a damaged hotel building, badly damaged furnishings, three or four other business properties very heavily mortgaged and no reserve. This meant complete refinancing and a readjustment of mortgages; selling some property at a margin; securing cheaper labor for repairing furnishings most economically; some financial help from Red Cross relief funds; sub-letting the hotel and re-selling the furnishings to a new buyer who had sufficient capital and capacity to handle it. All is going well, and the owner of the hotel has actually improved her position through the process of disaster and rehabilitation.

VENEREAL DISEASE MANUAL FOR SOCIAL AND CORRECTIVE AGENCIES. *United States Public Health Service, Division of Venereal Diseases. V. D. Bulletin No. 81. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, 50 cents.*

A cloth-bound manual of information for courts and probation officers, social workers, nurses, policewomen and policemen, and other workers in the fields of dependency and delinquency.

STATE SYSTEMS OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, *by Amos W. Butler, chairman. Indiana State Prison Print.*

A useful report of the Committee on Public Control and Supervision, comparing the methods of the various states, with tables and reference list.

SOCIAL CASE WORK. A selected bibliography by Frederick Warren Jenkins. Bulletin No. 77 of the Russell Sage Foundation Library, 130 East 22 Street, New York city. Price, 10 cents.

Subdivisions on family case work, children, medical and psychiatric social service, placement of children and visiting teacher work.

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From a German wood engraving *A print chapel of the sixteenth century*

Books in Our Alcove

A Monthly Survey of Current Publications

SOMETHING is the matter with our homes. Something is the matter with our schools. These two convictions are pretty generally in the air. The theories of the "new education," using that broad term at its broadest, are the efforts of our most intelligent educators to protect children from the physical, emotional and intellectual wages of home-school sins. That the urge to do better by our children is beginning to filter through to the general public is attested by the mounting number of books "for parents and teachers" on various phases of child training.

Mr. Gale's manual attempts to "embrace all or nearly all the essentials of child training." It has one outstanding chapter, The Child and Honesty, written by a man who actually remembers how the grown-up world looks through the eyes of a boy; it is a convincing plea for tolerance toward the mistakes of little children.

Angelo Patri seems able to fish unendingly in the pool of his broad experience. To the scientific educator his "catch" may seem insignificant—each bit too small and detached to have value. But his Miss Lavinia, his Story-Teller, Charlotte's Father, the music teacher who taught her class the "marching song" suggest priceless viewpoints and ways and means to the "average" parents and teachers for whom he writes.

The minutes of meetings are a bore, even in small doses. But if one can forgive the unutterable dullness of formal "proceedings" and wade through to it, there is much interesting and useful material in Intelligent Parenthood, notably in the section on The Importance of the Early Years and the round table discussion of Cultural Needs of the Child.

Professor and Mrs. Groves suffer the misfortune of those who, in trying to avoid old fashioned "firmness" stumble into sticky sentimentality. Despite the intelligent arrangement of material and their many wise ideas, their book is marred by its cloying introduction and the all too frequent patches of sweetness and light.

In fact, all four of these American products suffer by comparison with the sound scholarship, the sanity and understanding and saving humor of Mrs. Radice's book, the first volume in the projected Home and School Library. The chapters on Children's Reading and Music as a Discipline will probably be a revelation to any "average" American mother or teacher who happens upon them. (Not, of course, that Mrs. Radice is an "average" English mother, though she seems to take her mothering and her home as nothing uncommon.) And what a delectable home it must be, where all family events are preceded by a "meeting"—"these meetings are long and there is much discussion and unlimited time for writing minutes." At one of these meetings, for instance, "Luggage was decided on . . . and Mrs. and Miss Radice (aged about eight) were constituted a sub-committee with power to select clothing and pack the boxes. The hon. sec. (aged ten or so) undertook to tell the maids that we would be back 'Friday

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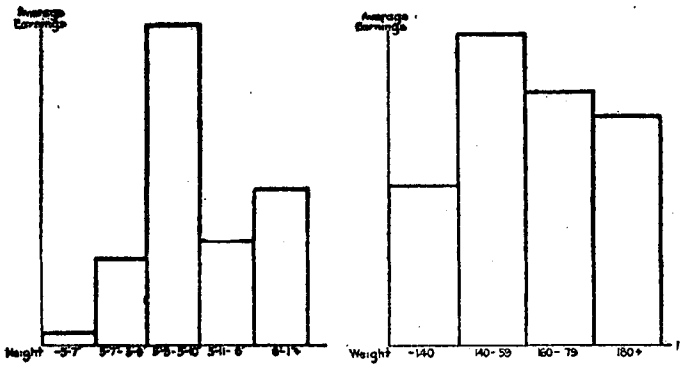
evening time for supper unless wire different,' and to ask them to feed the chickens and take care of Wixie (dog) 'and keep a note of eggs laid'." Aside from such incidental pictures of a remarkable English home, two remarkable parents, doing intelligent team work, and such a girl and boy as only such a home and such parents could produce, this book has enlightening descriptions and discussions of modern schools, with a particularly useful chapter comparing various new methods of school organization which summarizes the plans of a number of European experiments.

BEULAH AMIDON

ELEMENTS OF CHILD TRAINING, *by R. J. Gale. Holt. 299 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
INTELLIGENT PARENTHOOD, PROCEEDINGS OF THE MID-WEST CONFERENCE ON PARENT EDUCATION, MARCH 4, 5, 6, 1926. *Univ. of Chicago Press. 326 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
HOME AND SCHOOL, *by Mrs. A. Hutton Radice. Patridge, London. 254 pp.*
THE PROBLEMS OF CHILDHOOD, *by Angelo Patri. Appleton. 311 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
WHOLESOME CHILDHOOD, *by Ernest R. Groves and Gladys Hoagland Groves. Houghton, Mifflin. 183 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*



From the Psychology of Vocational Adjustment, Kitson (Lippincott)

HOW HIGH AND HEAVY SHOULD A SALESMAN BE?

The table to the left shows the relative average commissions earned by insurance salesmen of various heights: the right gives similar data by weights. From Professor Kitson's chapter on Physical Signs of Aptitude

Psychology at Work

THE NEW LEADERSHIP IN INDUSTRY, *by Sam A. Lewisohn. Dutton. 234 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY, *by Charles S. Myers. W. W. Norton, Inc. 164 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE PSYCHOLOGY OF VOCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT, *by Harry Dexter Kitson. Lippincott. 273 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE judgment of the vice president of the Miami Copper Company is that the management of human relations in industry must rest with the line officials, not with the top control men secure in their offices a thousand miles from the plant. He finds it obvious that the training the line officials have received "does not adequately equip a man to handle so-called 'human engineering'." Just how this training is to be organized Mr. Lewisohn does not tell, but it is propitious that one recognized as an outstanding industrial leader vigorously advocates a formal training in the new human engineering for the rank and file of production executives who will constitute the new leaders. Mr. Lewisohn's article in The Survey Graphic for September gives a clear summary of his position.

Charles S. Myers does not advocate. He plainly describes what has been done in human engineering by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology in England. Mr. Lewisohn wants all executives trained in industrial psychology; Colonel Myers shows what outside experts have done and implicitly emphasizes the importance of enlisting hundred-per-cent—not ten-per-cent— psychologists in the tasks of industrial adjustment. His first chapter, in which the point of view of the worker rather than of dividends is soundly supported, is in sharp contrast with some current attitudes toward human engineering.

One detail of human engineering, that of each man in his best job, is Professor Kitson's concern. Measuring and developing interest, intelligence tests, special aptitudes, and rating scales are given a practical, yet scholarly, presentation. Professor Kitson has placed one chapter of Mr. Myers' book under the microscope and has drawn a picture which will probably be a standard for some time to come.

This trio of books of promise and achievement should be read by every executive in industry, and by those on the industrial fringe. One who wants to start a library of practical psychology can invest in these without doing much damage to a ten dollar bill and to his continued profit. A textile executive has just told me that reading Mr. Myers' book resulted in earning $800 more a month in his plant.

So I recommended that he re-read that first chapter.

DONALD A. LAIRD

Editor Industrial Psychology Monthly

What Case Work Is

SOCIAL WORK, A FAMILY BUILDER, *by Harriet Townsend. W. B. Saunders Co. 247 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

WE have a number of books interpreting social work as a whole to social workers; a few texts, among which Miss Richmond's is still unrivalled, developing and interpreting the technique of family case work for its practitioners; and a few interpreting case work to the general public. Here we have a book within none of these categories: an interpretation of family case work designed for other professional groups. As such, Miss Townsend's book is to a certain extent a path-finder.

As a text interpreting family social work to "nurses, dietitians, home demonstration agents, home economists, and special teachers," it has many excellencies, and should offer suggestions to case workers themselves as to the manner in which their functions are related to the whole fabric of social and economic problems. And taken with the proper safeguards, it should result in a better understanding of case work by the groups to which it is addressed.

Miss Townsend reviews the "static" and the "dynamic" approaches to human distress and its attendant social problems throughout history, with the growth of channels for treatment through church, governmental, and private agencies, culminating in the development of case work through the charity organization movement. Such a summary in so few pages must necessarily be superficial; a number of statements are seriously open to question. Thus, the ratio of inmates in institutions for the insane to the total population can hardly be taken as an index of the increase of "insanity" in the United States; the "failure of modern family life to perform its accepted function as a training center for youth" is a popular conception which involves some false assumptions; that men's wages are in practice based upon the status of the married man is a theory which calls for evidence. But such statements do serve as challenges to the thinking of the student, and that is perhaps all that the author intended them to be.

The central concept of the book is expressed in its title. The enrichment of family life is to a certain extent the concern of all forms of social work. Family case work, distinguished from other (*Continued on page* 106)

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The New Art of Buying In Social Work

By ROBERT W. KELSO

This is the second of a series of articles on Social Work Inefficiencies, by Robert W. Kelso, Executive Secretary, Boston Council of Social Agencies. The third —Is Faithful Service Enough?—will appear in an early issue.

TRADITION relates that when the red-headed lad who later grew up to be General Grant, was sent on a journey to sell the family mare he hastened to tell his intended customer that his father had instructed him to ask seventy-five dollars but that if he couldn't get that he was to take fifty! Undoubtedly there are some social workers who could train with Grant and not a few who belong in the class with that other delightful rustic who bought the gross of green spectacles. It is only now, when federation purchasing bureaus are beginning to look into methods, that the gross inefficiencies of social agency buying are becoming apparent.

Buying today is a special art. No business house can hope to maintain a successful margin of profit, however wide its sales, unless it can buy economically. And the more complicated become the processes of distribution, which lie between the manufacturer and the consumer, the more intricate and difficult becomes the problem of efficient buying.

The social agency uses large quantities of materials, especially those organizations conducting institutions and dealing with the housing and treatment of individuals. It is not too much to say of present conditions that on the average there is a chronic failure to take advantage of business opportunities in the purchase of supplies, to which the size and influence of the society should entitle it. It is possible that over 10 per cent of all the millions spent by American social agencies could be saved without reducing either the quantity or the quality of the goods purchased, if expert buying were insisted upon by the directors. For the small and the moderate sized organizations this necessarily means some syndicate or other combination; yet these are most in need of improvement. The large hospitals and homes frequently have able purchasing agents; but with them also, much could be done by way of improvement through closer relationship between institutions.

A matron, housing and feeding nearly a hundred inmates, orders her butter in five-pound pats by telephone at current prices. "She has always done it that way, and the tradesmen are perfectly honest." These facts are true; but she is buying at the small consumer's prices when she could take advantage of quantity purchasing.

Another superintendent prepares an annual report—has prepared it for years—and submits it to the same printer, who follows an invariable style in set-up and charges current rates. In response to a suggestion that the set-up should be studied to see whether it can be made for less money or can be made better for the same money, the superintendent states that the printer is the soul of honor, and, anyway, he has given the society a contribution of twenty-five dollars a year for ever so long. In point of fact the price charged is fair as the top rate for new job work. A price from a different printer some 40 per cent lower, secured by a purchasing bureau for social agencies, is turned down because of the disturbing effect it might have upon existing relations.

A group of public institutions, all under the same supervision, are in the habit of buying supplies independently. Thus they buy meat, butter, electric lamp bulbs and coal separately. Each makes its own bargain and buys when it feels like it. A financial man, supervising plant and maintenance, brings about a single contract for 50,000 light bulbs—a year's supply—on test with guaranties, at a price some $2,000 below the previous outlays.

An institution, housing several hundred boys, had at one time in its store several thousand cakes of toilet soap, still in the paper wrappings. In response to the inspector's query it was explained that the soap was bought this way and laid up to dry out thoroughly as the boys were very wasteful of green soap. After some months of drying the boys removed the wrappers which were thrown away and the cakes stored for use. Some of the same soap was also used in the laundry. A purchase, at the inspector's instance, of unwrapped bars at more than a cent per bar less, and of soap chips for the laundry at a much lower price than cake soap resulted in a wide margin of saving in money and labor. And a further joint contract among institutions for laundry soap chips added to these economies.

The average small social agency seldom thinks of securing a lower price on its supplies in any way other than charity—the benevolence of the vender. The idea of approaching him on a business basis has hardly yet dawned. Yet the seller would welcome such an approach. A large stationer's supply house in a New England city has an arrangement with a purchasing bureau for social agencies by which the agency buys carbon paper, cards, books, and other office supplies over the counter, paying cash and taking a sales slip or voucher. At the end of the month the agency sends this voucher, with all others from the same concern to the bureau which forwards its bundle of vouchers to the supply house and receives a check for 22½ per cent of the total face. This discount is then checked out by the bureau to the purchasing constituents. The supply house has made a cash sale, escaping all bookkeeping accounts, and has insured itself a large volume of business because of its plan. It is, therefore, glad to allow the discounts. This saving can be made in any fair-sized group of social agencies in the country. What business wants is quick sales in large volume for sure money. The agency is sure money and can usually buy for cash or on short term. It can deliver the quantity business if only it has the wit to combine with other agencies through a bureau or other syndicate plan of purchasing.

An efficient agency which has issued a council report for half a century, was paying approximately $500 for the publication of each issue. The printing was excellent, done by a standard house and at its usual rates. Through a purchasing bureau, which had the advantage of delivering many jobs to its list of printers, this agency secured the printing of this same annual report, with no discrepancies in layout and no change

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in style, other than one or two very minor differences in form, at a total price of $295.16. The agency reports that the new job is fully as satisfactory as the old. The total saving was figured at 39½ per cent.

There is no mystery about such savings. They relate not to bargain opportunities but to economical methods by which the potential buying ability of the agency is utilized.

But the greatest saving to be made in such a reform of present methods is not in the discounts on purchases; it lies in the standardizing process of discovering what to buy and when to buy it. When to buy butter, and whether to buy "June grass" and pay storage. What is the best grade of prune for the use of a particular institution; as for instance a 30-40 fancy for the palate of a tuberculosis camp, or 80-90's for the detention school for husky boys. (There is more meat in the 80-90's there is more allurement in the fancies.) In printing, fabulous sums may be sunk between print and paper for failure to learn economics in layout best methods in the use of type, most economical sizes for cutting and for margins.

The secretary of a cozy society wants a waste basket. It must be just about so, made of wicker and even, it may be, with a cloth cat on the side. This article is, of course, a specialty and can be had in all colors, sizes, and designs, but always at a specialty price. If the artistic arrangement of the office of that society calls for so much harmony, well and good; but if this is only personal whim, then the economical use of trust money indicates the sending of an order to a central purchasing bureau for a standard waste basket, which the bureau contracts for by the gross, having previously looked over the waste basket market and selected good standard material. Such a standard stock article by the gross, from which one agency in the combination selects its single item at its fraction of the quantity price costs in the neighborhood of forty cents and represents a vastly different operation from buying a hand made specialty over the counter at $3.50 to $4.50. Such methods sometimes show a variance of several hundred per cent in favor of the standardized purchase.

In view of present methods of marketing such supplies as social agencies need, the best effort calls for joint action. In business today volume controls price and the low price goes to the office of resale. This being so, the development of bureaus for joint purchase by agencies not in themselves large enough to secure jobbers prices becomes a necessity.

The tendency of the present time to develop such bureaus, which shall be instruments for standardization as well as joint purchase, is sure to bring about expert surveys of our needs and of the best methods of buying to meet them; with the result that great savings will be effected. The new department of purchasing practice of the Chicago Council of Social Agencies already reveals these needs and is now pointing the trend in seeking remedies. A study into the prices and methods of purchase of milk and cream by 49 Chicago social agencies has resulted in a reported saving of $22,853.09 in the first year. And this represents but a single item among the many purchases of these organizations.

But directors and executives have to be shown. There is nothing so perfect as one's own methods—until they are shown to be faulty. Twenty-nine agencies in the Chicago Council milk study declined to join the plan for reducing costs. If these averaged about as the 49 cooperating societies did, they were holding out against a saving approximating $13,500 a year in the funds which they hold in trust. Social workers need to realize more sanely that the funds they handle are the property of the public and are held by them in a trust which because of its impersonal quality is of a sacred nature.

A private citizen may buy his goods at retail; may order by telephone without looking over the market; or he may even throw his money away if he likes; but a trustee of money which belongs to the public cannot rightfully do anything short of his best to conserve his funds and make them go as far in the direction of their intended object as he can.

What Are Your Administrative Problems?

With this number, The Survey inaugurates an advisory service for executives on problems of social welfare administration. Five nationally known authorities place at the disposal of Survey readers, without charge, the benefits of their experience and training in welfare administration. They will gladly try to answer questions on specific administrative problems. Obviously, they cannot always present complete solutions; but they are willing to help in so far as their experience meets the specific problem presented by the Survey reader. If they are unable to help, they will try to suggest someone who can.

The following outline indicates the type of subject on which the committee is prepared to answer questions:

1. ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE
   - Elements of a Social Agency
   - Constitution and By-Laws
2. PRINCIPLES OF EFFICIENCY
3. INTRA-AGENCY FUNCTIONS AND RELATIONSHIPS
   - Board, Executive, Staff, Committees, Volunteers
   - The Basis of Membership in an Agency
   - Problems of a Departmentalized Society Carrying More Than One Social Activity
4. PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION
5. PLANT ADMINISTRATION
   - Location, Layout
   - Maintenance (sanitation, ventilation, heat, light, etc.)
6. CONTROLLERSHIP
   - Budgeting
   - Financial Accounting
   - Service Reporting
7. OFFICE ADMINISTRATION
   - Dictation, correspondence, stenographic and typing service
   - Reception, telephone, other clerical service
   - Records, Filing
8. FIELD ADMINISTRATION
9. ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUE OF THE INDIVIDUAL
10. TECHNIQUE OF THE EXECUTIVE
11. COMMITTEES

If your problem falls in any one of these suggested classifications, why not find out what the experience of others has to offer? Address Secretary, Survey's Committee on Administration, 112 East 19 Street, New York.

Here are the members of

The Survey's Committee on Administration

ELWOOD STREET, Chairman
Director, St. Louis Community Council
Editor, "Over My Desk" Department, The Survey

ROBERT W. KELSO
Executive Secretary, Boston Council of Social Agencies
Former President, National Conference of Social Work

FRANCIS H. McLEAN
Field Director, Am. Asso. for Org. Family Social Work

ARTHUR DUNHAM
Secretary, Child Welfare Division, Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania

LEROY A. RAMSDELL
Faculty Member, New York School of Social Work

JOHN D. KENDERDINE, Secretary
Editor, Social Work Shop Department of The Survey.

NOTE: *Questions on publicity and promotion may be addressed to the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work, 130 East 22 Street, New York.*

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET
Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Just a Friendly Visit

DOWN in Chattanooga, E. G. Woolwine, director of the Community Chest, has worked out quite an effective scheme for publicity. He has made a card list of all givers of $25 and over. As he goes around through the office buildings in Chattanooga he takes the cards of the givers in these buildings and calls on the givers, saying that he has just dropped in to say "hello" and thank them for their interest in the Community Chest. If the giver has something to say Woolvine stays and talks as long as the giver wants to. If the giver feels mildly interested Woolwine hurries on. On the back of each giver's card Woolwine writes the attitude of the giver toward the Community Chest. If the contributor has a complaint about some one of the agencies in the Community Chest, Woolwine gets a representative of the agency to call and explain away the difficulty. The giver seems surprised that he doesn't want money and usually is pleased with his "thank you" call. Woolwine does his calling between 9:30 and 12 o'clock in the morning and 2 to 4:30 o'clock in the afternoon. He does not telephone for engagements but just "drops in." This idea might very well be adapted to any social agency desiring public support and understanding.

How the Scouts Help

Woolwine of Chattanooga also tells of an effective scheme used by the Community Chest. All of the cards of unpaid subscribers were arranged by districts and one Saturday morning three hundred Boy Scouts went out in pairs in uniform. The delinquent subscriber was greeted by the Boy Scout salute and asked if he wouldn't please pay or indicate on his card when he would pay. Each pair of scouts was instructed to bring back a specific reply. The scouts brought back eight thousand dollars, much good will, and publicity for the Community Chest.

Arranging Prospect Cards

Over in Memphis, Tom Devine, son of Edward T. Devine, is director of the Community Chest. He described an unusual and effective method of arranging prospect cards for solicitors in the Community Chest campaign. Two postal employes are temporarily employed on leave of absence from the post office. They bring their postal records to the Community Chest office and arrange all the prospect cards by mail carrier's routes which usually cover six or eight square blocks. The cards thus arranged are assigned to the workers in the campaign, whose work thus is greatly reduced.

Taking the Chest to the Factories

Pierce Atwater, director of the Community Chest of Wichita, Kansas, has a collector who has contacts with the solicitors for the Community Chest in one hundred industries. He takes Community Chest factory posters around each month to these industries, sees that they are put up, makes necessary collections on payments which are due on pledges, and looks out for complaints and objections to which answers must be found.

Cutting Costs on Reports

Another economical idea worked out in Wichita by Pierce Atwater in order to cut costs of reports, is to have the reports on social agencies and social conditions mimeographed when from one hundred to five hundred copies are needed and to have covers for these reports printed in an attractive way and securely bound to the reports which they contain.

When the Executive Resigns

John Shillady says that he has had for many years the rule that when a member of the staff leaves for another job he leaves behind him a written opinion of the program of the organization and his suggestions for its development, as a means of rectifying its policies when rectification is desirable.

Another executive has the practice of dictating all the suggestions of activities which might have been carried out had he stayed on the job and all of his ideas for practice in his field of activity which he has been collecting during his years on the job. An original copy of these ideas is filed with the organization he is leaving and the carbon copy is taken to the new job. In this way the experience he has had while on his previous job is left for whatever value it may be, while the new job has the benefit of a running start on the use of the new worker's mind.

A Guide for Filing

Evart G. Routzahn, of the Russell Sage Foundation, suggests that social work executives clip the outline embodied in the announcement on page 103 of The Survey's Committee on Administration, and use it as a guide for filing data on administration. The executive might have a folder for each major subject in the outline and file in it pertinent material clipped from each issue of The Survey. Before long he would have a valuable store of suggestions on administrative matters

Be Sure to Read—

Recent articles, pamphlets and books bearing on administration.

LET'S HAVE LESS CIRCUS AND MORE COMMON SENSE IN MANAGEMENT, *by Charles Piez, System, September.* The necessity of all-around executive control and steady, planned development, instead of hectic spurts.

FINANCING ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE HARD OF HEARING, *by Earl H. Kelsey, Volta Review, (official organ of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing), September,* 1926. *Pages* 482-487.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF A SUCCESSFUL WELFARE ORGANIZATION, *by Arthur Dunham, Volta Review, September,* 1926. *Pages* 487-493.

DESK BOUND SALESMEN, *by Hiram Blauvelt, Printers' Ink, August* 19. For the executive whose case workers or field workers stay too close to their desks.

IS A HOBBY A BUSINESS ASSET? *by Herbert R. Maxwell, System, September.* The value of hobbies from a business point of view, which might well be applied to social work.

THE LITTLE SCHOOLMASTER, *Printers' Ink, September 9, p. 204.* A word to the wise about statistics.

TOP-SPEED SELLING ALL THE YEAR ROUND, *by C. A. Mezger, System, September.* The value of competitive sales campaigns, which might be applied to the work of social agencies as in financial campaigns, or in keeping down relief costs or keeping up income from friends, relatives and employers of clients.

AFTER OFFICE HOURS, *by William Feather, System, September.* A way in which social service might give distinction to honored members.

THE ARITHMETIC OF ADVERTISING. *A pamphlet free on request from S. D. Warren Company, 101 Milk Street, Boston.* (Mention The Survey when writing.) A leading paper manufacturer publishes an unusually valuable service manual for those interested in solicitation by mail.

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

The Lay-Out at Des Moines

JOHN A. LAPP and Howard R. Knight, president and general secretary, respectively, of the National Conference of Social Work, were the principal speakers at the Iowa State Conference of Social Work at Oskaloosa, September 22-24. These officials recently visited Des Moines and inspected the meeting places, hotels and recreation facilities for the annual meeting of the National Conference in that city May 11-18, 1927. The Shrine Temple will be completed in time to afford space for the general meetings, several section meetings and headquarters for operations and exhibits. Within two blocks radius of this meeting place are a dozen churches and other halls making it possible for all the meetings to be within one or two minutes walk of each other. The meeting location is just on the edge of the hotel center, the Shrine Temple being three blocks from the headquarters hotel. All the ample hotel facilities are within a radius of three blocks from the geographical center of the business district and are within four minutes walk from the railroad stations.

Miscellaneous Notes

RECOGNIZING the need in the community for supervision of and service to adolescent and post-adolescent boys, the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society of Baltimore has launched a new service in the form of an Older Boys Department with Edgar M. Gerlach in charge. The work planned will be somewhat similar to that being done by the Catholic and Jewish Big Brother Leagues for their respective groups, with particular attention being paid to behavior and vocational guidance problems.

DETROIT has decided that social work cannot afford "cheap" offices (see The Survey for September 15, 1926, p. 646). The Detroit Community Fund will erect a four-story building with all latest improvements to house its own activities and those of some twenty affiliated agencies. This operation will save $20,789 in rental and will afford more adequate quarters for Detroit social workers.

A NEW publicity feature will be introduced into the Georgia State Conference on Social Work, Macon, October 19-21. There will be four ten-minute talks by social workers at the conference dinner. The subjects: The Value of the Community Chest; Family and Children's Case Work; A County Health Program; The Essentials of a Social Work Program. The speeches will be discussed, criticised and judged by prominent laymen.

Elections and Appointments

ROSWELL S. ARRIGHI as general secretary, Albany (N. Y.) Associated Charities.

DR. AMOS T. BAKER as psychiatrist at Sing Sing.

ROSE BARON to the staff of the social service department, Michael Reese Hospital, Chicago.

JOSEPH W. BECKER, formerly managing director Illinois Tuberculosis Association, as executive secretary Missouri Tuberculosis Association.

DR. ELMER BERRY to the staff of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

ALLAN BLOOM as general secretary of the newly organized Jewish Community Center Association of Indianapolis.

MAE BOLSTEIN as superintendent, Jewish Community Center, Sioux City, Ia.

MARY S. BRISLEY to the faculty University of Missouri to teach social case work.

LUCY J. COLLINS as general secretary, Family Organization of Allentown, Pa.

MRS. LAURA J. DIEHL as superintendent, Williamsport (Pa.) Girls' Training Home.

RALPH E. DROWNE, formerly deputy commissioner of public welfare, Vermont, to the field staff of the National Probation Association.

BOYCE M. EDENS as director Community Chest of Charleston, W. Va.

HELEN LOUISE FITTS to the staff of the Connecticut Children's Aid Society, Hartford.

MRS. M. OPAL FORE as case work supervisor, Wichita (Kans.) League for Social Work.

J. C. GEBHART, director department of social welfare, A. I. C. P., New York city, to the staff of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company for one year to make a study of the costs of burials.

AUDREY GRAHAM as publicity secretary, Norfolk (Va.) Community Fund.

ETTA HAMILTON as supervisor Organized Charities Association, New Haven, Conn.

BERTHA HOUTZ as executive secretary, Jasper County Chapter, A. R. C. Newton, Iowa.

MRS. MILDRED KENSITT, formerly with the Toronto Probation Office, as general secretary, Montreal Children's Bureau.

MRS. JAYNE B. KERR as managing director, Illinois Tuberculosis Association.

J. B. KIRKLAND, formerly superintendent George Junior Republic, as secretary of the divisions in the field department, Boys' Club Federation.

JACK STUART KNAPP to the staff of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

EDYTHE LINDSAY, formerly acting general secretary Montreal Children's Bureau, as director Social Service Department, Children's Memorial Hospital, Montreal, succeeding MRS. AMY HILTON, resigned.

HARRY LURIE, Jewish Social Service Bureau, as president Chicago Social Service Club.

MRS. MARGARET FINCK McGOVERN as advertising manager, BETTER TIMES.

ELIZABETH McMECHAN, formely visiting teacher at Berkeley, Calif., as general secretary Family Service Society, Salt Lake City, Utah.

MARIAN R. MILLER as general secretary Norfolk (Va.) Y. W. C. A.

JOHN M. MOORE, D.D., as one of the general secretaries, Federal Council of Churches.

FLORENCE NELSON as editor of Safety Education, succeeding MARY NOEL ARROWSMITH, formerly editor, and executive secretary, National Safety Council.

ELINOR NIMS, formerly with the child welfare department, Westchester County, N. Y., as executive secretary Welfare League, Lexington, Ky., and instructor in sociology, University of Kentucky. The University and the League are sponsoring an experiment to bring the sociology department into closest active relations with the social work of the city.

M. ANNE OWEN as health officer, Northampton County, Va.

MRS. MARY PADDON to the staff of the Child Study Association of America.

KURT PEISER, formerly director Federated Jewish Charities of Milwaukee, as superintendent, United Jewish Social Agencies, Cincinnati.

WILLARD C. POOLE, JR., as instructor in sociology, McGill University, Montreal.

FRANK DAVIS PRESTON as Western Pennsylvania representative of the Public Charities Association of Penna., with headquarters at Pittsburgh. Mr. Preston organized the Community Fund of Fort Wayne, and for two years past has been director of the Omaha Welfare Federation and Community Chest.

JOHN E. RANSOM as superintendent, Toledo (O.) Hospital.

DR. ARTHUR RUGGLES, superintendent of Butler Hospital, Providence, R. I., to committee of five to conduct a survey of operations of St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., the government's hospital for the insane.

WALTER C. SCHAFER, formerly extension secretary, Associated Charities, Pittsburgh, Pa., as general secretary, Charity Organization Society, Hartford, Conn.

A. J. TODD as head of department of sociology, Northwestern University.

GERTRUDE VAILE as executive secretary, Ames (Ia.) Social Service League.

IDA J. WOLFF as resident head worker, Jewish Alliance of Los Angeles, succeeding MINNIE KAHN.

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FALL BOOK NUMBER

PAMPHLETS, reprints, reports, books—anything in the line of reading that you would like to get into the hands and minds and lives of Survey readers may be advertised to best advantage in the Fall Book Number, to be published November 1.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, of the Survey published semi-monthly at New York, N. Y., for October 1, 1926.

State of New York, } ss.
County of New York, }

Before me, a Commissioner of Deeds, in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared John D. Kenderdine, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of The SURVEY, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 411, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are: Publisher, Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Editor, Paul U. Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Managing Editor, Arthur Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Business Manager, John D. Kenderdine, 112 East 19 Street, New York City.

2. That the owner is: (If owned by a corporation, its name and address must be stated and also immediately thereunder the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding one per cent or more of total amount of stock. If not owned by a corporation, the names and addresses of the individual owners must be given. If owned by a firm, company, or other unincorporated concern, its name and address, as well as those of each individual member, must be given.) Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 Street, New York City, a non-commercial corporation under the laws of the State of New York with over 1,800 members. It has no stocks or bonds. President, Robert W. deForest, 30 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.; Vice-Presidents, Julian W. Mack, 1224 Woolworth Bldg., New York, N. Y.; V. Everit Macy, "Chilmark," Scarborough-on-Hudson, N. Y.; Robert Hallowell, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.; Secretary, Ann Reed Langstroth, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.; Treasurer, Arthur Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 per cent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: (If there are none, so state.) None.

4. That the two paragraphs next above, giving the names of the owners, stockholders, and security holders, if any, contain not only the list of stockholders and security holders as they appear upon the books of the company but also, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting, is given; also that the said two paragraphs contain statements embracing affiant's full knowledge and belief, as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner; and this affiant has no reason to believe that any other person, association, or corporation has any interest direct or indirect in the said stock, bonds, or other securities than as so stated by him.

[Signed] JOHN D. KENDERDINE,
Business Manager.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 22nd day of September, 1926.

[Seal] MARTHA HOHMANN,
Commissioner of Deeds, City of New York,
New York County Clerk's No. 184; New York County Register's No. 28079.
My Commission Expires May 25, 1928.

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What Case Work Is

(*Continued from page* 101)

specialized groups chiefly by its primary rather than a secondary approach to the family as a unit, should be based upon a clearer conception of modern family life than we possess. The family as an institution has developed faster than our understanding of it, leaving us holding fast to many traditional norms. Miss Townsend's chapters on The Family suggest some of the changes which have taken place, but neither sociology nor social work has yet adequately interpreted the processes by which the family is adjusting itself to modern conditions.

After discussing the social and economic backgrounds of social work, the author analyzes the processes of case work itself as illustrated in a case record. One could wish that Miss Townsend had given less attention to purely physical and economic factors, and more to the function of case work in the development of personality. She might also have safeguarded the use of her text by an attempt at definition of the relative functions and responsibilities of the groups to which the book is addressed as distinguished from those of the case worker. These, however, are faults which are shared by the case work group itself. Miss Townsend has given us a book which is persuasive and well documented, and interpreting to other fields the technique and the "high human adventure of family social work" she has blazed a trail which we hope that others may follow.

LINTON B. SWIFT
American Association for Organizing Family Social Work

A "Know How" Librarian

THE BACK OF BOOKS, *by William Warner Bishop. Williams & Wilkins Co. 340 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A QUARTER of a century ago, and again in 1924, the librarian of the University of Michigan was a student in the Vatican Library. His notes made at the beginning and end of the quarter-century mark the beginning and end of a fresh contribution to the literature which seeks to interpret these last twenty-five years, and present the record of the development of one important contributor to library growth and service. Most of the chapters deal with a balance between immediate problems and the long view in the work of the library—and Mr. Bishop has had his fill of both in small and large libraries: including at the major end of the scale Princeton, the Library of Congress, and his present charge.

Naturally a wide range of material is presented, but it all centers strikingly in what we have come in certain fields to call the case method. The student, physician, lawyer, teacher or social worker will find here problems clearly visioned and defined, with exact appreciation of facts and of scientific method, but without ever losing sight of the human end to be accomplished. The needs of a senator or ambassador at Washington, a scientist in the university laboratory, a high school pupil finding himself in a debate, an immigrant getting at the necessities of naturalization—each of these and many others are dealt with constructively and adequately. Even the material dating from the war requires no change to pass current today, as is evidenced by the demand of civilians for similar service as soon as the war library machinery had been put into operation, and the addresses which show intelligent planning to meet them.

This is just the kind of a book which with a little judi-

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cious guidance by marking should be put into the hands of school and college executives, other than formal members of library boards, leaders of social and educational movements, et al., so that they may get at the life and adventure of the library movement. The author is decidedly of the group of great librarians whom he characterizes as men who "not only knew, but *knew how.*" Those who know him as a raconteur hope that he will follow up this volume with other essays.

Boxford, Mass. FRANK A. MANNY

RUN OF THE SHELVES
A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

Industry

MACHINERY AND LABOR, *by George E. Barnett. Harvard University Press.* 161 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

A GOOD DEAL of what comes over one's desk in the way of "industrial books" is a setting forth of some theory of solution for the thickening problems of the "machine age." The picture left in one's mind after browsing through these volumes is quite likely to be a shifting, uncertain sea of words, where a few dimly visible facts bob, small and uncertain, against a darkening horizon. Professor Barnett has written another kind of a book, and, in the reviewer's opinion, a more useful type, though it frankly concerns itself only with a small and arbitrarily limited section of modern American industry. The author is professor of statistics in the Johns Hopkins University. He has genuine respect for facts as the safest material out of which to build a foundation for general thinking. He here presents the facts relating to the introduction of the linotype, the stone-planer, the semi-automatic bottle machine, and the automatic bottle machine. The kind and amount of skilled labor each trade employed before the introduction of the machine, the extent to which it was displaced, the attitude of the union concerned, and a summary of the effect of wages and conditions of labor is given in regard to each of the four machines considered. On the basis of these facts, Professor Barnett discusses the current theories of the mechanical and economic factors which govern the degree to which the introduction of machinery displaces skill in any trade, and the proper policy for a trade union to follow when the skill of its members is threatened with displacement. He does not fail to point out that "In both the instances where the unions opposed the introduction of machines the results were disastrous. The employers transferred the work to non-union plants or employed non-union men. The unions thus lost the opportunity to use other measures for the avoidance of displacement of skill which depend for their efficacy upon the extent to which the union controls the industry." He concludes that "The most important consideration in determining union policy is the surplus of men in the trade caused by the introduction of machinery and the power of that surplus to affect conditions." But he adds the caution that "There are no policies of universal validity. In any particular case of the introduction of machinery, a sound policy must be derived from a knowledge of the mechanical and economic factors invoked."

B. A.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF LABOUR, *by C. Delisle Burns. Oxford University Press.* 124 *pp. Price* $1.40 *postpaid of The Survey.*

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HISTORY OF ECONOMIC PROGRESS IN THE UNITED STATES, *by W. W. Jennings. Crowell. 748 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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The Gang

(*Continued from page 74*)

in the gang an attitude of fatalism, a willingness to take a chance—a philosophy of life which fits him well for a career of crime. "What's de odds? Take a chance!" He learns to take getting caught stoically. "You get caught sooner or later anyway; so why not take a chance?" Most gang boys are quite familiar with the punitive machinery of society. Boys standing at the window of the Chicago Cook County School, watching the westbound suburban trains of the Illinois Central, are heard to remark, "Dere go de St. Charles coffee-grinders" and "Dat's where we go next." The boys soon become used to the idea of being sent away; and they foresee the next step. One boy looked forward eagerly to the later stages of the journey: "I want to see de inside of Pontiac and Joliet too before I'm t'ru." This sentiment, developed to the logical extreme, may manifest itself in the "desperado attitude." A boy of sixteen, whose brother was hanged, and who himself was the leader of a particularly vicious gang, made the remark with all show of sincerity, "I want to kill a cop before I have to swing."

WHAT better education for a disorderly life can be found than that which the gang provides: inculcation of demoralizing personal habits, schooling in the technique of crime, the imparting of attitudes of irresponsibility, independence, and indifference to law, and the setting up of the philosophy of taking a chance and of fatalism?

Our impression is that the gang—defined to include the rudimentary type which Healy calls the "delinquent crowd," and to exclude the more formal group regularly constituted and supervised by some social agency—is a very important factor in Chicago crime. The great majority of the gangs studied in the present investigation had engaged in delinquent or demoralizing activities.

The abolition of the gang, even if it could be accomplished, would not remove the unwholesome influences with which the boy in gangland is surrounded. Many boys there would become demoralized even without the gang. But the gang greatly facilitates demoralization by giving added prestige to already existing patterns of unwholesome conduct and by assimilating its members to modes of thinking, feeling, and acting which would not be so emphasized without group influence.

If the gang may be regarded as one of the products of the economic, cultural, and moral frontier in a great city, the gang boy, too, may be so regarded. He is often a delinquent, but this delinquency cannot be considered in most cases other than a result of the situation complex in which he finds himself and from which he cannot escape. "There are no bad boys" is a slogan that has been adopted by the Boys' Brotherhood Republic; the idea behind it is undoubtedly sound—that "bad" boys as defined by society, are largely created by the disorganizing forces consequent upon the confused conditions where American life is in process of ferment and readjustment.

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AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION: Pittsburgh. Oct. 15-21. General secretary, E. R. Cass, 135 E. 15th Street, New York City.

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NATIONAL RECREATION CONGRESS: Atlantic City, N. J. Oct. 18-22. Secretary, Howard S. Braucher, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

GEORGIA STATE WELFARE CONFERENCE: Macon. Oct. 19-21. Executive secretary, Burr Blackburn, State Council of Social Agencies, 32 East Cain St., Atlanta.

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ILLINOIS HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATIONS Springfield. Oct. 21-23. Secretary, Grace Gordon Hood, Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.

INDIANA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Indianapolis. Oct. 21. President, Geraldine Hadley, 624 Middle Drive, Indianapolis, Ind.

NEW HAMPSHIRE HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Manchester. Oct. 22. President, Elsie King, 426 Union Ave., Laconia, N. H.

ILLINOIS TUBERCULOSIS AND PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: Danville. Oct. 25-26. Executive Secretary, Jayne B. Kerr, 516½ East Monroe Street, Springfield.

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REGIONAL CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA: Atlanta, Ga. Nov. 11-12. Chairman, Dr. A. P. Janison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.

ILLINOIS CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC WELFARE: Mt. Vernon. Nov. 14-16. President Eugene T. Lies 108 S. LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill.

STATE CONFERENCE OF PROBATION OFFICERS: Buffalo. Nov. 15-17. Secretary, Frederick A. Moran, 443 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN: Washington, D. C. Nov. 14-19. Secretary, Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, 2109 Broadway, New York City.

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